Missing words and missing definitions: NL Arabic speakers' use of EFL dictionaries.

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NL Arabic speakers' use of EFL dictionaries

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Abstract

Research into EFL learner dictionary use is receiving increasing attention. Most studies, however, focus on learners' reference needs. Only a few studies concern learners' productive use of dictionaries. Thus, we know very little about learners' reference skills and the reasons behind their difficulties in using dictionaries. The scarcity of empirical data about learners' actual use of dictionaries prompts this research. This thesis is an empirical examination of Arabic-speaking learners' actual use of EFL dictionaries for comprehension and production. It endeavours to uncover the root causes of their difficulties in dealing with EFL dictionaries.

The thesis begins with a replication of Béjoint's (1981) questionnaire to ascertain whether Arab learners encounter the same problems as others. Three issues are raised: 'missing words', strategies for looking up 'compounds', and 'problematic definitions'.

Two studies are carried out to investigate 'missing words'. Problems with missing words are attributed to candidates' apparent failure to locate certain meanings of polysemes, to find compound nouns and to searching for specialised words.

Three studies are conducted to investigate strategies for looking up 'compounds'. Failure to look up compounds correctly is attributed to looking up noun-adjective compounds under the noun and noun-noun compounds under the 'meaning-bearer'.

Four further studies centre on using dictionary entries for production. Problems with dictionary entries are attributed to the use of synonyms, the use of 'etc', the lack of some collocates and the ambiguity of explanations. Candidates' misinterpretations of meanings play a part. It appears that entries created in line with EFL learners' needs are more effective than traditional dictionary entries.

It is concluded that the dictionary-makers' policy of entering compounds under the first element seems to be an ideal solution. A large-scale study of EFL learners' productive use of dictionary explanations may help lexicographers improve the quality of entries. This may help learners use the information to their best advantage and consequently avoid errors.

Dedicated

To

My parents

A debt lovingly paid

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Table of Contents

List of recurring abbreviations

ALD	=	Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary
ARA	=	Arabic-speaking learners of English
BBI	=	The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English
BDs	=	Bilingual dictionaries
CIDE	=	Cambridge International Dictionary of English
COBUILD	=	Collins COBUILD English Language dictionary
EFL	=	English as a Foreign Language
ENG	=	English native speakers
ESL	=	English as a Second Language
LDOCE	=	Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
LLA	=	Longman Language Activator
MDs	=	Monolingual learners' dictionaries

Introduction

"The past decade has seen a meteoric rise in the production of new dictionaries in Britain ...", Cowie (1990:671). The shelves of libraries and bookshops are crammed with different types which deal, among many other things, with the ever-changing meanings, technical and specialised terms, usages, etc.. Only recently, a new type of dictionary, the EFL dictionary has appeared, to serve the needs of learners of English as a foreign language. This type of dictionary has become the centres of innovation (Ilson, 1986b).

EFL dictionaries are very much designed to be a tool for communication rather than a mere inventory of meaning and etymology. Cowie (1981) ascribes the progress in the production of EFL dictionaries to two reasons. First, considerable attention is being paid to vocabulary teaching. It seems that the increasing emphasis in research on vocabulary acquisition demanded good-quality dictionaries. Secondly, "the growth of a critical awareness among the present generation of EFL lexicographers ... of the substantial foundations on which their practice rests" (p.202).

Despite the remarkable improvement which has been manifested by EFL dictionaries available on the market, some learners' needs are not adequately met. Rundell (1988:127) argues that "MLD's [monolingual learner's dictionary] full potential as a language-learning resource has not been realised". Actually, some empirical research has shown that they do not benefit EFL learners very much. Presumably, this is because they have not fully catered for some EFL learners' needs and difficulties with understanding dictionary metalanguage.

Országh (1969) claims that the 'run-of-the-mill' monolingual dictionaries failed to treat and present appropriate information on phraseology, idiomatic locutions, standing combinations and word-association.

Studies into learners' reference needs and reference skills which have been conducted to the present day are not so penetrating. They do not give a full and clear analysis of learners' use of dictionaries. One important aspect is still lacking about EFL dictionaries; that is, evidence about the way these dictionaries are used in reality. It is a fact that the advancement of knowledge in this field, particularly 'psycholexicography' is as yet undeveloped. It is widely acknowledged that new vocabulary items can be acquired from reading (e.g. Saragi, et al., 1978). It is doubtful that this process will occur with reading dictionary explanations if users encounter problems with these explanations.

In Hausmann et al.'s (1989, 1990 and 1991) voluminous encyclopaedia contained very little information about the actual use of dictionaries. In his review of the first volume, Meara (1992b:148) rightly argues that

> There is no critical assessment of this work ... to develop a methodology which would allow us to investigate what learners actually do with a dictionary ...

Several scholars (e.g. Stein, 1986; Zgusta, 1986 and Béjoint, 1994) maintained that many questions about dictionary use are still awaiting proper answers. For example, little research has investigated the way users find multiword units and multimeaning words in monolingual dictionaries. Likewise, little research has been devoted to the way learners decide that they correctly located the meanings sought, the way they arrive at the meaning read and the way

they use the information given. In addition, there has been no research to investigate whether this information is sufficient to assist them to make correct judgements and extrapolate correctly. Although MacFarquhar and Richards (1983) investigated the intelligibility of some dictionary explanations, little data is available on the effectiveness of dictionary explanations.

This research project has been prompted by the arguments of Meara and others and will attempt to answer some of the many questions raised using an homogeneous sample from a single linguistic background, i.e. Arabs. To produce dictionaries which cater effectively for Arab learners' needs, it is imperative to provide dictionary-makers with evidence of their typical dictionary using habits. I have investigated these using other studies. From my replication of Béjoint (1981), I have likewise identified problems. This leads me to believe that there are inherent weaknesses in the compilation of dictionaries. I will try to highlight these weaknesses and will put forward my own suggestions for improving dictionary compilation.

This thesis is an investigation into the reference skills of advanced Arabic-speaking learners of English. I intend to probe their real-life use of monolingual English learners' dictionaries using three major EFL dictionaries in my investigation. These are: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary* and *Longman Dictionary of the English Language*. I intend to refer to them by their abbreviated titles: ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE, respectively. The thesis is organised into eight chapters.

The first chapter is a review of the literature. Two types of studies are evaluated. These

concern dictionary user reference needs and dictionary user reference skills, i.e. their look-up strategies and their use of dictionaries for production. Only those studies which are strictly relevant to the present work have been evaluated. Three problems with dictionary use have emerged. These are related to: (a) missing words (b) multiword look-up strategies and (c) dictionary definitions.

In chapter two, a replication of Béjoint (1981) is described. The main purpose of this study is to discover whether Arab learners of English encounter the problems named above. Béjoint's study has been chosen as being widely cited in literature and having conclusions which are generally recognised.

Chapter three investigates dictionary user problems with missing words. It reports two studies tackling this problem. The first study concerns learner difficulties in locating particular meanings of polysemous words in dictionaries. The second study deals with learner look-ups of multiword units. This study attempts to show whether learners can in the first instance find multiword units and reveals the strategies they adopt.

Chapter four further investigates learner look-up strategies of multiword units. It reports two studies which attempt to find the motives for user look-ups of two-word units. In particular, it investigates the role of word frequency in learner look-up operations of noun-noun compounds.

Chapter five concerns learner written production. Here, learners are asked to produce

sentences using certain dictionary meanings to show their understanding of the meanings they read. Besides comparing the readability of COBUILD and LDOCE explanations, this study explores learner strategies in handling dictionary explanations and examines the mistakes made while using these explanations.

Chapter six investigates some difficulties EFL learners encounter when using dictionary explanations, e.g. problems with collocational information. It comprises two studies. The first study assesses learners' ability to judge the acceptability of verb-noun collocations based on dictionary explanations of the two components of the expression. In addition, it compares the effectiveness of COBUILD and LDOCE explanations regarding their help in judging collocations. The second study assesses learner ability to extrapolate some collocates that can replace 'etc', when standing for some noun-objects, in some verb entries. In both studies, learner behaviour and strategies in handling dictionary information are examined using verbal report data provided by some learners.

Chapter seven gives a comparative evaluation of traditional dictionary entries and revised entries. I discuss the characteristics of traditional dictionary entries in hindering dictionary users from doing well. Likewise, I discuss the characteristic of the revised entries and the principles upon which they are based.

The final chapter concludes the key findings of the above studies. I discuss their implications and give some recommendations.

Chapter one
Previous research on dictionary users' reference needs and skills

1.1. Introduction

Many research projects have been conducted in the past thirty years on the use of monolingual dictionaries (MDs) and bilingual dictionaries (BDs) (e.g. Quirk, 1974; Ard, 1982; Hartmann, 1983a; Bensoussan et al., 1984; Sora, 1984; Tono, 1989; El-Badry, 1990; Starren and Thelen, 1990 and Nesi and Meara, 1991; Nuccorini, 1992). The studies were conducted to find the role that dictionaries play in language learning (e.g. Diab, 1990); consider learners' problems with learning English (e.g. Nesi, 1994) and discover how much and how often, or to discern how successfully dictionary users used dictionaries (e.g. Atkins, et al., 1987). The following questions were addressed: (1) How users find what they need in MDs? (2) Can users understand dictionary explanation? (3) Do users with different linguistic backgrounds behave similarly? Unfortunately, due to insufficient research, these questions are still not fully answered.

Studies on dictionary use have three features in common. First, they show authors' commitment to improving the use of dictionaries among target users. Secondly, they provide some data about dictionary use that can help produce better dictionaries. Thirdly, the majority of these studies concern dictionary users' reference needs only.

In this chapter, I intend to review some studies into dictionary use to show the status of MDs among dictionary users. These studies fall into two parts; each deals with one aspect of dictionary use. They are: dictionary users' reference needs and dictionary users' reference

skills. The latter covers two areas: look-up strategies and using dictionaries for production. This classification is in line with Hartmann's (1987b) taxonomy to the approaches to dictionary studies.

It emerges that three major problems exist with dictionary use. These problems concern (1) *missing words* (2) *compound placement policies* and (3) *dictionary definitions*. Many dictionary users complain of words that did not exist in dictionaries, i.e. missing words. Dictionary users also appear to look up compounds differently and frequently under different words from where they are entered in MDs. Even dictionary users with a shared language background differ in how they look up multiword units. In addition, dictionary users are not always comfortable with dictionary explanations. All the studies below highlight one or other of these problems. The discussion closes with a summary of the main points that emerge from the bulk of the literature reviewed. In this way, the direction of our research will be clearly envisaged. These studies are chronologically presented.

At this juncture, it is relevant to explain what is meant by dictionary skills. Scott (1989) points out that dictionary skills means relying on the dictionary as a tool of 'self-help'. This includes deriving the benefit from dictionaries in the classroom for 'interactive group-work'. Broadly speaking, dictionary users' skills centre either on 'decoding', i.e. comprehension, or on 'encoding', i.e. production. I now propose to evaluate some studies dealing with user reference skills.

1.2. Dictionary users' reference needs

Several studies have addressed themselves to dictionary user reference needs and are far too extensive to be covered in a work of this size. Some covered native speakers' needs (e.g. Barnhart, 1962; Quirk, 1974; Greenbaum et al., 1984; Kipfer, 1987; Jackson, 1988 and Benbow et al., 1990). Others covered non-natives' needs (e.g. Tomaszczyk, 1979; Baxter, 1980; Galisson, 1983; Ellis and Forman, 1993 and Ducroquet, 1994). Briefly, these studies deal with what dictionaries are used for. Below, I shall confine myself to those studies which are relevant to my research.

1.2.1. Kipfer (1987)

Kipfer reports an investigation into the acquisition of dictionary skills and the impact of these skills on intermediate-level students' language needs. She formulated a questionnaire to uncover American high school pupils' use and attitudes towards MDs. 292 pupils completed the questionnaire which covered four areas of dictionary use.

The first and third areas concerned the relationship between dictionary users' skills and language needs and the influence of these skills on their reading and writing abilities. It appears that pupils used MDs chiefly for checking meaning and spelling, mostly for writing purposes. Approximately 79% of the pupils used MDs for writing (cf. Jackson, 1988). Only occasionally, pupils used dictionaries as a guide to pronunciation. Although 86% of the pupils claimed that they always found the words hunted, 72% agreed that people are lazy about looking up words in MDs other than when it was "absolutely necessary".

The second area was related to pupils' needs and acquisition of reference skills. Kipfer claims that 52% of the pupils admitted that they did not know their MDs well. Their answers showed that they had problems with the metalanguage. Many pupils, 71%, said that they had never received instruction in dictionary use. All pupils had no idea about dictionary-making and differences between dictionaries. It seemed that they used any dictionary they came across. In general, their attitudes towards dictionaries were mostly positive. However, sometimes comments like: "not worth the trouble" and "not fulfilling needs" were made.

The last area concerned the utilisation of direct intensive instruction in using dictionaries, EFL and machine-readable dictionaries to improve users' skills and communication. Kipfer convinced a group of 30 pupils to work with learners' dictionaries. She introduced them to these dictionaries and taught them how to use these dictionaries efficiently and fully. Kipfer provided the pupils with two tests. The first test was completed with a dictionary but no dictionary was allowed in the second test. A third test which consisted of some modified exercises from *Learning with LDOCE* was also taken by the pupils. The results showed that the pupils had no problems with answering most of the questions and did not have trouble with looking up words. Teaching dictionary use improved pupils' language understanding and widened their knowledge and access to dictionary information (cf. Tono, 1989).

Kipfer argued that pupils' problems were not those which MDs could be responsible for. The pupils were not using MDs efficiently. She believed that more dictionary instruction in schools might result in efficient dictionary use. Kipfer suggests that instruction in using learners' and automated dictionaries should be introduced to intermediate-level pupils. She

adds that the diversity of these tools is necessary if successful dictionary users are wanted.

Kipfer's study is interesting because it shows that native pupils' reference needs are to a large extent similar to EFL learners'. Both types of users seem to use MDs for similar purposes. In addition, they encounter almost the same difficulties in handling dictionary explanations. Both native schoolchildren and EFL learners, for example, complain about definitions being vague (see 1.4). This sometimes resulted in misinterpreting the meaning of words looked up (see 1.4.1.1 and 1.4.3.1). Consequently, they were not using dictionaries efficiently (cf. Herbst and Stein, 1987). However, schoolchildren are slightly different from non-natives in that they often use dictionaries for written work. Possibly, this is because they have to submit essays for their course work. Unlike other studies into natives' reference needs (e.g. Quirk), Kipfer's subjects did not complain about missing words. Kipfer did not account for this finding, however. Below, I would like to discuss two points with reference to this paper.

First, Kipfer's questionnaires seemed to generate some contradictory data. This might be caused by the pressure some questions put on the informants to remember things. In turn, this might have caused their inconsistency and produced some contradictory figures. For instance, whereas only 230 subjects said that they used MDs for writing, 254 subjects claimed that they used dictionaries for writing short essays. Probably, pupils did not report their actual use of MDs but what MDs could be used for. Kipfer's findings on pupil lack of knowledge of types of MDs may support this argument. When asked to name dictionaries in use, some pupils listed names of thesauri. Kipfer seems unaware of this point, however. Kirkpatrick (1985) points out that most dictionary users are unaware of the different types of

MDs available on the market.

Secondly, Kipfer's use of instruction to improve pupils' efficiency in using MDs is very interesting. This phenomenon, which is lacking in most EFL institutions, I believe is worth employing and promoting. Unfortunately, Kipfer did not give us enough information on the way she instructed the pupils in dictionary use. No mention was made of the results of the tests administered to the pupils, let alone the actual questions and exercises used. Kipfer also did not involve her subjects with any task using automated dictionaries. It sounds unrealistic to advocate and recommend the use of computerised dictionaries without trying them on a single subject, to validate the claim. The reader is left wondering, how she knew that such dictionaries were "extremely attractive" and would improve users' language proficiency.

1.2.2. Béjoint (1981)

The purpose of this study was to unveil the way French students of English used their MDs. Béjoint administered a 21-item questionnaire to 122 second, third and fourth-year French University students who wanted to become EFL teachers. He introduced some novel questions to probe areas of learners' reference skills which were not investigated before.

It appeared that almost all students owned MDs. (Béjoint's figures are given in detail in chapter 2). Dictionaries were mostly bought on teachers' advice. Mostly, MDs were used for decoding. Like most other studies, Béjoint's subjects claimed that meaning was the most sought-after category. Some way behind came spelling, syntax, synonyms and pronunciation, in this descending order. Like other studies (e.g. Heath and Herbst, 1985, cited in Herbst,

1987) codes and introductory matters were often neglected. Fewer than half the students were satisfied with MDs rather than with BDs. Problems with look-up operations, albeit not large in proportion, were often caused by vague definitions and missing words. French learners seemed to look up nominal compounds under the entry for the headword, i.e. the last word in English compounds.

French students noted that their dictionaries had only little information on idioms, slang words and Americanisms. Similar suggestions were made by the German-speaking learners of English (Snell-Hornby, 1987). In general, the results allowed Béjoint to conclude that advanced learners did not exploit all information in EFL dictionaries to their best advantage.

Béjoint's study is interesting because it highlights many EFL learner problems with MDs, e.g. missing words, incomprehensible definitions, incorrect look-up operations of multiword units, etc.. It also shows learner negligence or ignorance of some categories of information upon which lexicographers worked hard. While widely-quoted and considered very useful, two criticisms can be levelled at this study.

First, Béjoint's study is not comprehensive. Several questions could have been added, enlarging its comprehensiveness and providing a wider area for user reference. For example, no questions were introduced to elicit information about whether dictionaries were used as sources of precision and reminders of partly-remembered items. Similarly, no questions were concerned with whether dictionary users were using collocational information or how they could obtain it. In similar vein, many items seemed redundant appearing to serve dictionary

publishers rather than revealing EFL learners' actual usage.

Secondly, Béjoint's study suffers from the widely-acknowledged limitation of questionnaires; that is, lack of absolutely reliable data. Like Kipfer (1987), some contradictory figures were obtained. For instance, whereas most students indicated that they had used syntactic information, many of them reported that they seldom referred to codes. If not derived from codes, from where could they obtain syntactic information? These contradictory answers were possibly because Béjoint had provided his students with the choices he thought would be sought after. The students' task was only to rank-order what was presented to them rather than what they actually used. Possibly, they might have ticked variables which they had never used. It would suggest that the data should be taken cautiously. Béjoint could have avoided the presentation of the different variables about dictionary use and left users to opt for the aspects they used in reality.

1.2.3. Kharma (1985)

In this study, Kharma attempts to reveal the reference needs of Arab learners of English. He used two versions of a questionnaire and some small-scale tests with 284 students of the English Department of Kuwait University. The first version had to do with MDs and the other was concerned with BDs.

It appeared that all students possessed MDs and BDs, but BDs were commonly preferred. Many students were using secondary school MDs and BDs which did not serve them well (see percentages of missing words and meanings below). About 64% received training in

MDs use, but this was not thorough. Dictionaries were mainly used for reading 88% and writing 80%. Meaning, as always, was the most sought-after type of information. This was followed by spelling, 91%; derivatives, 89%; synonyms, 72%; grammar, 65% and pronunciation, 64%. About 83% of the students claimed that they studied some parts of MDs forematters.

90% of the informants said that they were dissatisfied with MDs; 87% were not happy with the 'defining vocabulary'. 'Missing words' and 'missing meaning' were blamed by 84% and 79% of the subjects, respectively. (This problem could be ascribed to using inappropriate MDs). 73% and 57% indicated that their dissatisfaction was because of the insufficient number of examples and unclear grammatical labels, successively. Students suggested the use of a clearer defining vocabulary and the application of more examples, synonyms and antonyms (cf. Iqbal, 1987).

To validate the results from the questionnaire, a set of small-scale tests was used (cf. Atkins et al., 1987). The first and second tests concentrated on students' familiarity with *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. It appeared that most students knew where the key to pronunciation was. Moreover, they could interpret the phonetic symbols. They were not fully acquainted with stress symbols and sentence patterns, however. They also found it difficult deciding where to look up multiword units.

The third and fourth tests required the testees to give some grammatical features and the exact meaning of some contextualised words. 60% and 75% of the subjects responded correctly to

the above two tasks, respectively. In another task, the answers revealed 70% ability to find the exact meaning or the synonym of the target words.

The last test included a series of exercises; each consisted of a complete passage. The students had to read and comprehend the passages, look up some underlined words and give the following information: part of speech, transitivity, voice, sentence pattern, definition and synonym. The results were in accordance with the figures shown above.

Piecing together the results from both versions of questionnaire, Kharma concluded that a new type of dictionary is needed, i.e. bilingualised dictionary. This dictionary explains the target word in both the source language and the users' mother tongue. Kharma believes that a dictionary that combines features of BDs and MDs would alleviate the danger of learners' excessive use of BDs. To facilitate the process of meaning retrieval, Kharma argues that subtle shades of meaning can be disregarded and near meanings may be merged (for more information about this dictionary, see Kharma, 1984).

This study provides dictionary-compilers with interesting results especially as these were further validated. It confirms the fact that dictionary users experience similar problems with dictionary use. Among many others, these include missing words, unclear definitions and difficulty in looking up multiword units.

Some results seemed somehow exceptional. Many high figures obtained for using certain categories of information were not reached by other researchers. Most subjects appeared to

use dictionary information almost fully. Possibly, this might be due to two reasons. First, the fact that the students were majoring in English. However, other studies (e.g. Baxter, Béjoint, etc.) did not obtain similar figures although they used English-majors. I therefore agree with Tomaszczyk (1979) and Hatherall (1984) that dictionary users tend not to circle all choices. Secondly, was the relatively high proportion of students who received instruction in dictionary use. Tuition in dictionary use resulted in a more efficient approach (cf. Kipfer, 1987 and Tono, 1989).

Kharma's recommendation for the compilation of a brand-new dictionary catering for Arab student needs was not sufficiently researched. The needs of Kharma's subjects are similar to most other language users. Also, when it comes to actual dictionary use, users who favour BDs will probably only check their L1 equivalent translations and ignore the English definition. The presence of L1 translation equivalents may distract users' attentions from the target language explanation. Further research into the effectiveness of this type of dictionary especially for production purposes is necessary.

Kharma maintains that the space for L1 equivalents can be obtained by merging similar senses of the defined word. I think that this 'multiple-bite strategy', Hanks (1987:120), will not be productive. Intensifying meanings confuses users and encourages them to misinterpret the defined word and use it with faulty collocations (cf. McKeown, 1993 and Nesi and Meara, 1994). Cowie (1979:85) states that "it is desirable that meanings of polysemous items should be allocated to clearly demarcated sub-entries".

1.2.4. Iqbal (1987)

This thesis deals with EFL learner reference needs focusing on semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and lexical levels. Iqbal administered a 54-item questionnaire to 700 second-year Pakistani graduates. His questionnaire covered the following aspects of EFL learning: reference skills, language needs, meaning of lexical items, grammar, pronunciation and evaluation of dictionaries.

Iqbal found that most learners owned MDs. ALD was the most popular dictionary (cf. Sora, 1984). 51.29% of the learners used dictionaries frequently (at least once a week) but were not satisfied with the results of their enquiries to retrieve semantic information. Not surprisingly, most learners used BDs and 69.86% of the sample said that BDs were better in explaining meaning than MDs (cf. Marello, 1987). Interestingly, 74.71% of the learners claimed that they resorted to MDs rather than to teachers to check the meaning of unknown words. This seems to disagree with Kanselaar's (1993:255) argument that "A human tutor who is available to detect and resolve lexical misunderstandings would be much better than a dictionary".

Concerning the categories of information sought, 99.43%, 85%, 43.43% and 42.71% of learners claimed that they used MDs for meaning, spelling, pronunciation and grammar, respectively. Regarding the activities for which MDs were consulted, 53.29%, 28.57, 21.29%, 17.86%, 13.29% and 8.71% of the learners reported that they referred to MDs for reading, writing, L2-L1 translation, L1-L2 translation, speaking and listening purposes, successively. Definitions and examples were reported to be inadequate by around 46% regular dictionary users. 73.71% claimed that they usually read the entire definition. Front

matters were hardly read (cf. Béjoint). 86.86% of the learners used dictionaries to check parts of speech.

Regarding informants' recommendations, 77.43%, 63.71% and 83.29% of learners called for improving definitions, increasing the number of entries and usage examples, respectively. 84.57% took for granted the suggestion that dictionaries should provide users with all possible range of collocations for each headword. Many learners claimed that their problems with MDs stemmed from the difficult system of presenting grammar, missing meanings, missing examples, unclear stylistic information, pronunciation, etc. (The percentages were difficult to sort out being elicited according to a 5-point frequency scale).

One question required learners to indicate under which element they would look up some expressions. The results were:

	first	Second
ice cream	79.86%	19.14%
magnetic tape	32.14%	65.86%
boil down to	93.84%	4.43%

Learners seemed to favour the first noun, noun and verb in noun-noun, noun-adjective and phrasal verbs, respectively.

Besides the questionnaire, Iqbal administered a test to 20 postgraduates to assess their knowledge about collocations. The test comprised five types of collocations (v+adv: love dearly), (adv+adj: severely injured), (adj+n: terrible situation), (v+n: pay attention) and (n+n: tea spoon). The results showed that none of the respondents could write all the collocations

correctly. This, in Iqbal's view, proves that even the commonest kind of collocation poses difficulty for dictionary users.

Like Béjoint (1981) and Atkins and Knowles (1990), Iqbal concluded that MDs were chiefly used for decoding rather than for encoding. EFL learners could not use MDs properly because they did not possess the prerequisite knowledge for a successful dictionary use (cf. Kipfer, 1987 and Mitchell, 1983b). Iqbal recommended the integration of dictionary use into all stages of EFL learning. He strongly urged dictionary-makers to introduce some vital information, e.g. restricted collocations in dictionaries.

Among the studies into EFL learner reference needs, Iqbal's is considered the most comprehensive. Like others, it defines the most common learner problems with dictionary use. As is the case of other learners, Pakistani students appear to experience difficulties with finding all the words and meanings looked up. Likewise, they look up some compounds incorrectly and have difficulty understanding dictionary metalanguage. This study is especially important because it highlights EFL learners' problems with collocations, which most researchers tend to neglect. However, two points will be analysed below.

Point one concerns student look-up strategies. Iqbal seems to generalise the findings concerning multiword units look-ups derived from the results of three expressions. Each of these represented one type of compound. Possibly, if he had used a larger number of expressions, there would have been a wider variation in learner strategies. Even in the present data, some disparity was exhibited. Learners differed in how they looked up

compounds (cf. Béjoint), e.g. only about 66% of the subjects looked up MAGNETIC TAPE under TAPE. These look-ups could have been influenced by Urdu look-up strategies. They may have been influenced by learner ignorance of MDs policies in placing compounds. Other research (e.g. Sora, 1984 and Bogaards, 1992b) revealed that dictionary users' look-ups of multiword units were affected by their L1 look-up strategies.

Point two concerns Iqbal's strong recommendation for a special dictionary catering for Pakistani learners. This is surprising as most of the results did not furnish evidence to show their reference needs as being dissimilar to other EFL learners. Most studies revealed dissatisfaction among students due to unclear definitions, missing words and meanings, enigmatic codes, etc.. The problem of collocation, for example, was not exclusively a Pakistani one (cf. Bahns and Eldaw, 1993 and Chi, et al. 1994). I feel it would be more sensible to further research Pakistani learner reference skills and ascertain whether they are dissimilar to other learners.

1.2.5. Battenburg (1991)

This study, originally a PhD thesis, explores learners' monolingual dictionaries from the user's perspective. It specifically focuses on the effect of L1 background and language proficiency level on dictionary user usage habits.

Battenburg surveyed 60 ESL students at Ohio University to determine their usage habits, reference skills and opinions. He handed round a 10-item questionnaire to three different language proficiency levels: elementary, intermediate and advanced students. The mother-

tongues of 24 and 19 students were Arabic and Chinese, respectively. Other languages were Korean, Urdu, Spanish and Icelandic.

Battenburg found that MDs and BDs were owned and quite often used by beginners more than by intermediate and advanced learners. Most learners stated that they purchased MDs for no obvious reason. Some, however, said that they bought MDs because of the quality of the definitions. The commonest motive for dictionary use was to check meaning followed by spelling, with no difference among the three groups. Examples were quite often neglected by all students. Like other studies, only a few learners used introductory matters and appendices. Abbreviations, irregular verb forms and spelling tables, however, were more often employed. Many learners reported that they had not received instruction in how to retrieve information from dictionaries (cf. Iqbal).

The first two language level learners used MDs for decoding, i.e. reading, more than the other group. All subjects used MDs almost equally for writing. Unlike Diab (1990), speaking and listening rarely prompted Battenburg's students to use MDs. Translation, however, motivated all learners to use MDs, but the advanced group was the least to employ MDs for this activity. Most learners were not completely satisfied with dictionaries. They called for the presentation of clearer definitions and additional examples to improve dictionaries (cf. Iqbal, 1987).

The results allowed Battenburg to conclude that learners with different linguistic backgrounds used MDs similarly. However, learners' behaviour and opinion about dictionaries were

heavily affected by their language level.

Battenburg's study is interesting, but it can be questioned on the ground of the small number of participants within each language group. This does not give much weight to the study. Few subjects with different L1 were used at each language level. Their number in the three language category levels was also different. Presumably, about eight Arab and six Chinese students were on each language level. If an equal number from each linguistic background was chosen, about half of the students would be at one of these language levels.

Again, some language levels lacked some representatives of particular language backgrounds, e.g. only one Portuguese and one Icelander. Considering the shortage of these nationalities, it is wrong when there were three categories to count their performance as pertaining to each of the groups. Supposing these to be advanced students, it would be unfair of Battenburg to assume that learners would behave similarly at the other two proficiency levels. This representation on each language learning level may well account for the non-significant differences demonstrated among the three groups.

This study differs from other studies reviewed above in that it lacked answers for important aspects of dictionary use. It is a pity that Battenburg did not involve subjects in productive dictionary use tasks. Although it appears that the reference needs of different EFL dictionary users are similar, this proves untrue in production. Learners' L1 appears to play a part in their success at using MDs (see Nesi below). Battenburg's study also does not include any question to unveil user problems with MDs. It is interesting to see whether learners' L1 has a

bearing on their problems with MDs, especially as they respond to the same questions. Battenburg does not show whether L1 has influenced dictionary users' look-up strategies, understanding of definitions, etc..

Like other researchers, Battenburg seemed to generate rather unreliable data. Some information which most users ignored in other studies was adopted. This can be attributed to the fact that learners with different L1 backgrounds opted for a particular category of information more frequently. It is also possible that the content and the structure of the questionnaire might have affected the informants' responses. For example, if Battenburg has not introduced 'etymology', learners may not opt for this type of information. Mention should be made of the fact that none of the three main British learners' dictionaries, i.e. ALD, LDOCE and COBUILD, contain any information on 'etymology'. I wonder which other EFL dictionaries they used to look up 'etymology'?

1.3. Conclusion on research into dictionary users' reference needs

Studies evaluated above have shown that the main priorities of dictionary users do not differ from one environment to another, from time to time and from country to country (see Ilson, 1990). However, only the proportions of the users of a certain category may vary. The major findings of this type of research are summarised below.

Five categories of information, though occasionally varied in order and percentage, are sought by native and non-native users. These are: meaning, spelling, pronunciation, synonyms and grammar. Dictionaries are primarily used as a guide to meaning. Some

categories, e.g. grammar have been used less frequently by both types of user. Dictionaries appear to be used for writing more often by natives than by non-natives. However, some minor differences exist between user groups of different specialisations (cf. Tono, 1988 and El-Badry, 1990). Presumably, the needs of English-majors are different from those of users studying other subjects. The types of question and the rather complicated frequency scales used might have contributed to these differences. Although Battenburg did not discover any effect for L1 on the way dictionaries were used, some of the variation can be attributed to users' linguistic and cultural differences. Some studies (e.g. Marello, 1987 and Snell-Hornby, 1987) showed that some EFL populations used grammar and codes more than other EFL learners.

Most studies showed that little benefit was derived from the wealth of information in MDs. Grammar, prefatory matters and appendices were neglected by most users. Conceivably, four reasons can account for this phenomenon. First, the lack of fit between lexicographers' presuppositions and the users' abilities, Hartmann (1987a). Quirk (1974) rightly argues that there are cases where what dictionary-compilers see as essential, dictionary users consider peripheral. Secondly, user lack of awareness of the information included in MDs (Neubach and Cohen, 1988 and Jackson, 1988). Herbst and Stein (1987) found that about 65% of German learners of English did not know that LDOCE contained syntactic information. The third possible reason is a lack of prerequisite knowledge hindering successful dictionary use (Iqbal, 1987 and Kipfer, 1987). The fourth reason may be the difficulty of front matters. Zgusta (1986:144) points out that "only a few dictionaries try to make those instructions [forematters] easy to understand and follow". This bears out the poor results about using

codes and grammar.

There was a general consensus among dictionary users about what was problematic in dictionaries. This falls into three categories. First, many users have problems with finding some words and/or some meanings. Very few samples (e.g. Kipfer, 1987) did not complain about such a problem. It is unclear whether these users really found all the words they looked up or the original surveys did not include questions to uncover this problem. Researchers did not attempt to investigate and find out the reasons behind it. Similarly, none seemed to check the missing words recalled by certain users in the dictionaries consulted. It is useful to take up this finding for further investigation. This will be carried out in chapter 3.

Secondly, most studies that required the informants to look up some multiword expressions (e.g. Béjoint, 1981; Sora, 1984 and Iqbal, 1987) have revealed user problems. The look-up operations of learners of different language backgrounds often differed. They seemed to look up some nominal compounds under the first elements, under the second element or haphazardly. These findings suggest that MDs will remain ineffective unless this problem is satisfactorily remedied. It is therefore worthwhile to consider this issue to find out the reasons behind learners' failure to look up compounds correctly (see chapter 4).

Thirdly, most studies have shown that most users, natives and non-natives, complained about MDs metalanguage (e.g. Quirk, 1974; Béjoint, 1981; Sora, 984 and Kipfer, 1987). Users expressed their dissatisfaction with definitions. Possibly, this was due to dictionaries 'circular definitions' (Neubauer, 1984) or 'difficult explanations' (MacFarquhar and Richards, 1983).

These characteristics may account for EFL learners' excessive use of BDs. It is useful to conduct some research to find out what is problematic in dictionary explanations. Such research will be conducted in chapters 5, 6 and 7.

Before this discussion closes, it is appropriate to note two points. Firstly, most studies above lack some necessary analysis. According to Béjoint (1994), the statistical treatment of the data is not complete. It is necessary for some studies to run some cross-tabulations and use t-tests to show the significance of some results reached. Secondly, some of the data collected seem to lack genuineness and reliability. Informants sometimes might have found it hard to answer so many questions (ca. 300 in Iqbal) and recall whether they used MDs for a certain category frequently, occasionally, periodically, often, etc.. This might encourage users to write any answer that came to mind (Tomaszczyk 1979) and resulted in providing contrasting analysis. In Iqbal (1987), grammar was neglected by most subjects but many subjects, 86.86%, claimed that they used MDs to check parts of speech.

Most studies reviewed so far have neither shown how dictionaries were used for production nor provided reasons for the problematic aspects of dictionary use. Little information was acquired about the real performance of dictionary users. All these studies failed to account for what in reality took place when dictionary users consulted MDs.

In the next part, I shall discuss the second kind of research mentioned above; that is, learner reference skills. These studies, which were based on more reliable data collection methods, provide some explanation for the problems described above.

1.4. Dictionary users' reference skills

In this part, I shall consider some studies concerning the way users employ MDs for production. These studies differ considerably from those above in that the informants' behaviour is mostly observed rather than reported. According to their content, these studies can loosely fall into two categories, look-up strategies and using dictionary entries for production. This classification is made to serve the macrostructure of this thesis.

1.4.1 Studies involving subjects in dictionary Look-ups

In this section, I shall review four studies relating to looking up lexical items, single and multiword units.

1.4.1.1. Neubach and Cohen (1988)

This is a protocol type of study that aims at further clarifying users' difficulties with dictionaries. The informants were six Hebrew-speaking learners of English drawn from three proficiency levels of a course in EFL reading academic texts. They performed two tasks. First, they looked up the meaning of ten polysemous words presented in sentences in a monolingual dictionary and then in a bilingual dictionary. Secondly, they looked up another ten words residing in a 150-word text using any type of dictionary. In addition, they summarised the passage in their mother tongue. In both tasks, subjects verbalised the actions that took place while looking up the words. Both tasks were followed by interviews concerning subjects' attitudes towards dictionary use.

The researchers addressed seven issues. First, they considered the strategies that

characterised EFL learners' dictionary use. It appears that learners attempted to gather information about the target word from context first, then they read its definition in MDs. They encountered problems with polysemy, metalanguage, abbreviations and acronyms, missing meanings, suitability of meanings to context (they were not sure of which meaning would fit the source word), etc.. Most of these results tally with Mitchell's (1983b), see below.

The second issue was the relation between learners' strategies and their level of proficiency. It appears that high-proficiency students have fewer problems than other students. They have correct expectations at the sentence and word level before using the dictionary. The intermediate students have been less efficient than the advanced. They do not determine the part of speech of the target word or have correct expectations at the sentence or word level. In comparison, the low students use ineffective strategies. Like the intermediates, they have problems with understanding definitions (learners claimed that these were incomprehensible).

The third issue was the relation between words and learners' strategies. Neubach and Cohen claim that learners have experienced some difficulties with finding the correct meaning when encountering words with fewer contextual clues. This led to a faulty search and faulty conclusions.

The fourth issue was whether dictionaries helped in reading comprehension. Neubach and Cohen note that dictionaries are not a great help to users' comprehension of the text involved in the second task. This is especially true of the low-proficiency students (cf. Bensoussan et

al., 1984). The advanced students appear to benefit from dictionary use for the comprehension task. Their use of dictionaries is mainly to reinforce what they deduce from the source text.

The fifth issue was whether the subjects would prefer one type of dictionary to another. Neubach and Cohen have found that only low-proficiency students prefer BDs to MDs. Whereas intermediate students use both types, advanced students prefer MDs (cf. Bensoussan et al., 1984 and Atkins and Knowles, 1990).

In the penultimate and last issues, the researchers tried to find out whether there existed strategies specific to MDs or BDs use and reveal problems inherent in dictionaries. It appears that the higher-proficiency students use MDs. Occasionally, when they are dissatisfied with BDs definitions, the intermediates use MDs. Some explanations in MDs required learners to possess world knowledge (cf. Minaeva, 1992 and Béjoint, 1994). Also, several problems have emerged from the use of BDs especially in the choice of the translation equivalents. Sometimes, the meanings of some words are not included. Like other users, Neubach and Cohen's subjects complained about the layout of MDs.

The researchers conclude that EFL learners need some training to enable them to use dictionaries to their best advantage. They add that learners need to be taught how to use contextual clues before looking up words in a dictionary.

Neubach and Cohen are the first to consider EFL learners' look-ups in context. They have

discovered some interesting facts which back up Mitchell's (1983b). EFL learners and native children seem to share in common most dictionary use difficulties. Because several issues are encapsulated in this study, Neubach and Cohen have given scanty attention to some of them.

The importance of this study arises from the fact that it provides some evidence to account for user complaints about missing meanings. It appears that some meanings targeted in dictionaries were really absent. However, there may be other reasons for this problem that are worth pursuing (see chapter 3). For example, dictionary users may not be able to locate the meaning suitable to the context under consideration. Also, they may accept the first meaning offered in dictionary entries. Tono (1984) found that many Japanese learners of English satisfied themselves with the first meaning given in entries for polysemous words.

I feel one important point was lacking in this study. Neubach and Cohen only investigated learner comprehension skills. It would have been worthwhile involving learners in a productive task besides the disambiguation task. The researchers should have ascertained whether learners could understand the information they had read. For example, learners can be set the task of writing sentences using the meanings read. Also, they may answer questions about the target words to show that they have understood the meanings and realised what is crucial in correct usage. It is still not clear whether learners could use the meanings correctly. Two points deserve comment. They are discussed below.

First, the findings can be questioned on the small number of subjects in each language level group. This makes the findings difficult to generalise. One can hardly accept data elicited

from only two subjects in each language level. Further research with a larger sample is needed to verify the findings.

Secondly, the materials used are not well-controlled. Neubach and Cohen claimed that the stimuli were polysemic. It would seem that they had not pre-checked the stimulus words in the dictionaries used. In one of the dictionaries used, the *Longman Active Study Dictionary*, "moored", "pawn", "admonition", "tactile" and "relish" have only one meaning each. Similarly, many other words have only two senses. It is likely that if the stimuli were multi-meaning words, subjects might experience greater difficulty in finding the target meanings. The differences between the results of students at different proficiency levels might be affected by the unbalanced length of entries in the dictionaries used.

Below, I am going to describe a set of three studies, i.e. (Bogaards, 1991a, 1992a and 1992b) concerning dictionary users' look-up strategies of multiword units. A critique of these studies will then follow.

1.4.1.2. Bogaards (1991a)

This study investigates French native speakers' search strategies of multiword expressions. In actuality, it verifies findings from Bogaards (1990) where frequency has been found to play a role in users' look-up habits.

Two lists of 35 expressions each were submitted to 69 Paris University students and 48 students at the Lycée Jean Moulin. The first list (A) included 24 expressions of the form

(Art.+N+de+N), e.g. "un homme de paille" /a straw man/ and 11 expressions of the form (V+N), e.g. "donner sa vie" /to give one's life/. The stimuli were idioms and expressions of a collocational character. The second list (B) was of the type (V+N). 11 expressions of the type (V+N) were common to (A) and (B). Four of these items, "anchor" items, were a combination of frequent and infrequent words used in Bogaards (1990). Some infrequent items in these expressions were replaced by most frequent words and vice versa. The words were chosen from different frequency classes. What characterised this list was that the verb in the expressions was sometimes the most frequent and at other times was the least frequent element. This procedure was meant to prevent any mechanical underlining of those verbs.

The subjects were assigned two tasks. First, they had to underline the items under which they would look up the expressions. Second, they had to mark the words they considered most frequent in a list of 28 pairs of words. One word of each pair was "vie", "pied", "cheval" or "chapeau". For each of these four words, Bogaards used seven different nouns. These words were separated from the original words by a fixed number of places in the rank order of Juilland et al. (1970). The latter words were chosen at distances of 50, 100, 150, 200, 300, 400 and 900 places. This list was intended to verify subjects' sensitivity to frequency so that it could be related to the results of the first test.

In a first analysis of the data, Bogaards considered three groups of items. The first group included the expressions where the distance between the frequency rank order of the two words was less than 1000. Words with distance of 1000 to 2000 were included in the second group. The last group contained words with distance of more than 2000. A significant effect

was found for frequency rank order. The data obtained from the "anchor" items suggested that the minimal limit for word frequency sensitivity was about 2000 words. This allowed Bogaards to argue that French dictionary users were to a certain extent sensitive to differences of frequency. They were opting for the least frequent element when the distance between the two elements was at least 2000 words. However, they did not discriminate word frequency beneath this rank order.

The results also showed that the subjects' guesses at words whose frequencies were almost close to one another were clearly different. The subjects found it difficult to tell the frequency of some words. When the difference between the two words was about 900 places, the choices centred around chance level. On the whole, French native speakers were not good predictors of word frequency. Other studies (e.g. Shapiro, 1969 and Carroll, 1970), however, have shown that native speakers of English are good at estimating word frequency.

1.4.1.3. Bogaards (1992a)

This study attempts to discover to what extent frequency rank order determines dictionary users' preferences in looking up idioms. (Put another way, the frequency distance that lexemes have to have to be chosen as targets for dictionary look-ups). Bogaards used a two-part questionnaire. The first part comprised 36 collocations and idiomatic phrases of the form (N+de+N). Among these, three expressions of the type (V+N) were included to "break the monotony" of the flow of the expressions. All expressions were presented in sentences. Some words were of a frequency rank order between 750 and 1250 (1000) and others between 1750 and 2250 (2000) according to Juilland et al. (1970). These were combined

with other words of different frequencies: 1000-4000. The second part contained six words. Each word was combined with three or four other words at distances 1000, 2000, 3000 and 4000 according to the previous usage rank-ordering list. The total number of these items was 21.

The subjects were 52 highest class students of a lycée in Lille (France). They were assigned two tasks. First, they indicated the number of the word under which they would look up the expression. Secondly, they underlined what they would consider the most frequent part in the 21 expressions mentioned above.

As to the first test, Bogaards found that at frequency distance of 1000-2500, difference in frequency has little influence on subjects' choices. It was clear, however, that from 2500 upward, subjects' preferences tended to be for the least frequent items. In other words, subjects tended to choose words that were less frequent than 2500 in frequency ranking order. In the second test, the tendency to prefer the least frequent items was clearer especially where the frequency rank order of words were 2000 and 3000. When the word was at a distance of 4000, for instance, the tendency to look up infrequent items was no longer in evidence.

Bogaards contended that these findings largely bore out his prediction that frequency was an important factor in French natives' look-up preferences. They chose the least frequent word as more likely to contain the meaning of the whole expression. Such results appear to substantiate Bogaards' (1991a) evidence where native French dictionary users manifested some sensitivity to word frequency. Difference between the frequency of the two elements of

expressions below 2000 were rarely discriminated.

1.4.1.4. Bogaards (1992b)

In this study, Bogaards investigates the way Dutch learners of French looked up collocations in French-as-a-foreign-language dictionaries. It appeared that the Dutch usually adopted their L1 look up strategies. They opted for nouns and payed no attention to word frequency.

The materials were 26 expressions selected on frequency and word class basis. Five groups of Dutch native speakers participated. The first group, FR4, consisted of 38 fourth year university students who were taught French for ten years. The second group, FR1, included 45 first year university students who studied French for six to seven years. The third group, ANG, was 51 third-year university students of English who learned French for five to six years. The fourth group, LYC, consisted of 88 secondary-school students who had been exposed to French for four years. The last group, INF, comprised 53 students who received French for three and a half years but they did not practise it for about two years. The task set to subjects was to indicate under which element they would look up the expressions.

It appeared that the look-ups of the Dutch differed from those of native speakers of French (cf. Bogaards, 1990). Unlike French natives who concentrated on word frequency, most Dutch learners of French used their L1 look-up strategies. They favoured nouns as more likely to contain the meaning of the French expressions. Many fewer subjects thought that the expressions were entered under the adjectives. Verbs, however, were the least preferred category. When chosen, verbs were usually non-frequent.

The results of the different groups were as follows. INF (the lower level learners) opted for grammatical elements and verbs. Those learners chose frequent nouns (unless these were too frequent or similar to L1 equivalents). LYC chose grammatical elements when no frequency difference existed between the components of expressions. They opted for nouns, adjectives and adverbs, but verbs were hardly picked out. ANG preferred grammatical elements, namely verbs. FR1 and FR4 (advanced learners) did not get any closer to the Francophones than other groups. Their behaviour was still more Dutch-like than that of French natives. Where both elements of expressions were equally frequent, they chose nouns.

Bogaards concluded that non-natives' look-ups of collocations differed from natives'. The Dutch used their L1 look-up strategies. They almost systematically favoured nouns. This result confirms Bogaards' (1990), where French natives tended to prefer least frequent elements but the Dutch opted for nouns. However, strategies varied according to learners' level of proficiency. Lower level learners, for instance, opted for grammatical words and avoided very frequent words. Advanced learners, on the other hand, were somehow more similar to French natives than to Dutch speakers as far as frequency was concerned.

Bogaards' studies deal with an important issue, viz. frequency rank order as an explaining variable in dictionary look-ups, that has rarely been addressed. If word frequency has a bearing on all dictionary users, lexicographers will encounter fewer problems in placing multiword expressions. All expressions, regardless of their type, can then be entered under their least frequent parts. However, there is a fear on the part of foreign learners of not being able to judge the frequency of some words, especially in languages that have nothing in

common with English. This problem can probably be solved by educating EFL learners and writing textbooks on a word frequency basis.

It is likely that some French natives' look-ups were not determined by word frequency, but by other factors. This is because some subjects did not prove to be good predictors of word frequency. Bogaards' argument that this was because Juilland et al. (1970) (against which the judgements were checked) was not up-to-date sounds logical. But, it is likely that some subjects opted for what they considered more specific, independent or the 'meaning-bearer'. Again, they might also have chosen the word whose meaning they did not know, particularly if it was unfamiliar to them. Maybe, a pre-check to ascertain whether the subjects knew the meaning of the word was necessary.

Word frequency look-up strategy is interesting and is worth taking up with users of English dictionaries. However, I am sceptical about applying this strategy to users of English dictionaries. Only French dictionaries enter multiword units under the rarest word; English dictionaries enter them under the first content word (Rey-Debove, 1989). Therefore, this strategy may be adopted by French native speakers alone. However, if it happened to be adopted by English native speakers, it is likely that EFL learners will follow. This is because the literature on dictionary use has shown only minor differences between natives and non-natives' reference needs and skills (see 1.4.3). However, this might happen if their L1 dictionaries entered idioms on a frequency basis.

Entering expressions on a frequency basis may not be a practical procedure as far as EFL

dictionaries are concerned. This is because guessing word frequency is not always accurate. If a learner came across an expression made up of one frequent and one infrequent element, the following scenario can take place. If the frequent element is unknown, it is very likely that they would mistake the frequent word and consequently look up the expression under the common word. It must be remembered that not all words are as frequent to some people as others, e.g. "gene" is more frequent to a biologist than an electrician. Naturally, entering expressions on a frequency basis requires an up-to-date word list. It is a fact that word usage changes from time to time and from spoken to written texts. Therefore, a more appropriate suggestion leading to the production of ideal and user-friendly dictionaries is yet to be invented. More information is required about the way learners look up multiword units.

Lemmens and Wekker (1990) believe that dictionary users' problems with multiword units can be solved in CD-Rom dictionaries. These units can be indexed. Users need not ponder on where to find a particular term. All that is required is to key in a combination of the truncated words. The *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, CIDE, appears to have implemented a similar solution. It provides a Phrase Index for all phrases. By consulting the target lexical item under any word in the Phrase Index, users are given the precise page where the meaning is to be found.

1.4.2. Conclusion on research into look-up strategies

As noticed, only a few studies have been conducted to research dictionary users' look-ups strategies. The first study reviewed in this section has shown that dictionaries caused their users many problems. For example, some words and meanings sought were not included in

the dictionaries used. Possibly, this was because the dictionaries were small or restricted. Also, dictionary users were found to experience some difficulty in understanding definitions they read. It would be interesting to undertake some research to ascertain whether different EFL populations do encounter the same problems (see chapters 3, 5 and 6). Sometimes, it is suggested that dictionary user's language level may have affected the look-up strategies and productive dictionary use (Neubach and Cohen, 1988; Tono, 1988 and Bogaards, 1992b).

Dictionary users' mother-tongue look-up strategies appeared to interfere in their foreign language look-ups (Bogaards, 1992b). French native speakers have been found to look up multiword units under the least frequent item whereas foreign learners of French are not sensitive to frequency at all. The latter group gives more attention to word class, mostly opting for nouns. It would be interesting to follow up this line of research to find out whether word frequency affects English dictionary user look-ups and whether natives' look-up differ from non-natives' (see chapter 4).

1.4.3. Studies involving subjects in productive tasks

The studies described below have involved American and British pupils and EFL learners in real-life dictionary use tasks. Mostly, these studies concern user actual application of certain categories of information in MDs. This type of research is still less advanced than studies into user reference needs. According to Béjoint (1994:160), this is "because the field is at the frontier of several disciplines".

Two points emerge from these studies. First, many dictionary users appear to encounter an

uphill task when using MDs. Secondly, schoolchildren's skills are similar to those of non-natives'. This may sound surprising since common sense suggests that natives' ability and performance would be different from non-natives'. One thing that may account for this is the low language level of both types of groups.

1.4.3.1. Mitchell (1983b)

This study was part of a large-scale research project into assessing reading strategies in Scottish secondary schools. Mitchell spells out pupil problem while performing some look-up activities. She administers a series of tests to:

a. uncover British pupils' potential difficulties in using MDs;
b. assess pupils' skills at retrieving information from MDs; and
c. ascertain whether pupils understand dictionary typology, e.g. entry, sub-entry, etc. and whether they can extract information on parts of speech and derivatives.

Several 'search-do-reading' tests were run with some one hundred pupils of mixed ability primary 7 class. One test consisted of a set of sentences, each with a word in heavy type print. The pupils had to look up the target word in a dictionary and identify its appropriate meaning. In addition, they had to take the meaning and manipulate it to fit into the sentence. For example, having the sentence "The joiner placed the wood in a VICE" followed by Heinemann English dictionary definition of VICE, the right answer would be:

The joiner placed the wood in an instrument with jaws that would hold the wood tightly.

This test revealed many interesting results. Observing pupil behaviour, Mitchell noticed that some pupils did not scan the whole explanations especially in entries with identical spelling.

Some pupils appeared to follow a peculiar style of approach to reading definitions; that was, 'first-thing-you-come-across'. They were satisfied with the first meaning offered by the dictionary.

Pupils committed many errors. Some pupils were not "referring to or not having a sufficient grasp of the source text" (p.86). In other words, they seemed to misread the text or, probably, they had difficulties with interpreting the source text. This information was elicited from the pupils themselves through direct question-and-answer intervals when encountering any difficulty. Pupils were using the definition and the examples in the entry equally well. Sometimes, they confused the former with the latter. Some parts of the examples rather than of the definitions were produced in their sentences (see also Miller and Gildea, 1985). Like Bensoussan and Laufer (1984), some pupils appeared not to benefit very much from the source text.

Some pupils failed to check the identified meaning against the total context. This strategy might account for inappropriate responses such as "The secretary was asked to A SHEET OF PAPER IN A BOOK to page the manager". Here, the source text reads: The secretary was asked to PAGE the manager. If this pupil checked what had been chosen against the original context, the error would be easily recognised.

Other interesting findings were also discovered in the 'meaning identification' task. Mitchell found that some pupils were extracting only one segment of the definition and applied it to the source context. Given the definition:

aspen *n* a kind of poplar whose leaves quiver even in a light breeze

some pupils answered:

- An aspen is a kind of leave.
- An aspen is a kind of breeze.
- An aspen is a kind of quiver.

Other pupils picked out a redundant part of the definition and used it in the sentence. Given the definition:

vestment *n* a ceremonial robe, especially one worn by the clergy during religious services

one answer was: "A vestment is a kind of religious service". The writer seemed not to realise that the phrase "especially one... services" was only an elaboration that added some information to the core meaning "a ceremonial robe". Probably, such a phenomenon occurred because pupils were unable to understand the whole definition. They thus picked out the part they could easily comprehend. Possibly, pupils might read the definitions cursorily or even misread them especially where they had encountered unfamiliar vocabulary (see the example below).

Some pupils proved to be unable to use derivations and parts of speech (cf. Nesi, 1994). They were unable to identify the grammatical class of the target word. This problem was overcome by the 'part-of-speech' support-steps which were provided when the need occurred. It appeared that certain words were more problematic than others. This happened where the

explanation was hard to decipher, e.g.

flaxen *adjective*
1. of or made of flax.
2. having the pale yellowish colour of treated flax

In brief, this study revealed rather pessimistic findings. It showed that pupils had difficulty in locating, using and interpreting the information they looked up in dictionaries.

Mitchell's study is interesting because it provides a clear image of the way native schoolchildren use dictionaries. Probably, it is one of the most useful studies conducted on dictionary skills analysis. What is interesting about Mitchell's findings is the similarity between children's performance and EFL learners'. Many problems are encountered by both groups (cf. Tono, 1984 and Neubach and Cohen, 1988). Both experienced difficulties with understanding certain definitions. Both hit upon wrong definitions and sometimes accepted the first meaning given without reading further. It is worth doing some research to ascertain whether these problems are prevalent among EFL learners of different linguistic backgrounds. This may help show what is at fault, dictionaries or their users.

One important finding, discovered by Mitchell, is pupils' tendency to accept a single fragment of the explanation and endow it with all the other meanings. Such a phenomenon has become known as the kidrule strategy (cf. Miller and Gildea below). It is adopted by native children and EFL learners alike. It would seem that dictionary definitions lacked the sophistication to prevent users from falling into this trap. It is worth devoting some effort to find out what is wrong with dictionary explanations and devise a means of preventing the kidrule strategy.

However, Mitchell's study is not without defects. Two points are worth raising. First, Mitchell does not provide any figures or statistics about the results reached. She merely gives a description of pupil behaviour and strategy. In the main, we know nothing about the proportion of pupils who failed to locate or misinterpreted meanings, accepted first meanings, etc.. We are not sure how many instances of this nature occurred.

Secondly, some of Mitchell's justifications of the results were interesting but did not shed light on other factors which might have influenced the results. We do not know her reasons for choosing the exercises she set. There is a possibility that they were too difficult for the pupils.

1.4.3.2. Miller and Gildea (1985)

This article reports on pupil ability to look up words and produce acceptable sentences. The main goal was to reveal the kinds of mistakes pupils made when using dictionaries.

The materials were 22 lexical items: 12 relatively frequent and 10 rare words. The words were provided with definitions and phrases or sentences using them. The participants were fifth- and sixth-grade American pupils (number not mentioned). Their task was to look up the above words and compose sentences about their meanings.

457 sentences were analysed: 249 contained the common words and 208 contained the rare words. About 21% and 63% of these sentences, respectively, were unacceptable. Pupils appeared not to have enough grasp on the meaning of the target words. Different types of

errors were identified, e.g. wrong part of speech, wrong preposition, inappropriate object, etc.. The most frequent type of error was caused by children's application of what Miller and Gildea called 'kidrule'. This look-up technique involves the following five steps:

1. find the target word in the dictionary;
2. read the definition;
3. select a familiar segment of the definition;
4. compose a sentence containing the chosen segment; and
5. replacing the selected segment by the target word in the sentence.

The following example may illustrate this strategy. Producing a sentence about PLUMMET, one pupil wrote: "My mother's PLUMMET is 130 pounds". He looked up the word and read the definition, step 2,

> **plummet 1** a plumb. 2 a weight. -- v. to plunge straight down.

In step 3, he selected "weight" as a short and familiar segment. Then, he composed a sentence using this segment: "My mother's weight is 130 pounds". The last step was when he substituted "plummet" for "weight". The evidence for the application of kidrule was found in children's sentences which sometimes were left at step 4, i.e. the selected segment was not replaced by the target word. At other times, children wrote some segments of the definitions in the page margin. Miller and Gildea justified children's use of kidrule on the ground that definitions were loaded with more information than they had known how to use.

In the same article, Miller and Gildea report on another study carried out to find out whether examples help pupils produce more correct sentences than definitions. The researchers

provided pupils with three kinds of materials for ten different rare words. These were: a dictionary definition, a dictionary sentence and a New York Times sentence. The sentences composed were rated as acceptable, marginal or unacceptable. The results showed that users of 'dictionary sentences' produced more acceptable and fewer unacceptable sentences than the users of the other two types. 'Dictionary definitions' were the least helpful.

Kidrule errors were not definition-exclusive. They also appeared in children's production with 'dictionary examples' (cf. Mitchell above). Given the example "The king's brother tried to USURP the throne", one child wrote: "The blue chair was USURPed from the room". Miller and Gildea argue that children appear to "abstract a familiar concept from the unfamiliar word's context of use, and only then apply kidrule" (p.24). In the previous example, the writer gathered from the illustrative example that "usurp" meant "take". He used "take" in the sentence and finally substituted "usurp" for it. In the light of these findings, Miller and Gildea have not concluded that illustrative examples were better than definitions. Instead, they suggest that some more research into this area has to be conducted. As a result of this research, it is argued that dictionary explanation can help users remember word meaning, but not learn new words (Miller et al., 1990a and 1990b). This confirms Gipe's (1979:642) claim that

> use of dictionary is not helpful for the initial learning of word meanings because the definitions and example sentences are such that unless the user has some prior knowledge as to the word's meaning ...

Miller and Gildea's finding about the kidrule strategy is important because it appears that EFL learners share this strategy too (cf. Nesi and Meara, 1994). Both Mitchell and Miller and

Gildea's findings confirm that native children in common with EFL learners have productive dictionary use problems. Possibly, the way both types of learners interpret new meanings is similar. Blachowicz et al. (1990) claim that pupils usually make literal interpretations. EFL learners tend to do the same (Nesi and Meara, 1994). It is therefore necessary to pursue this line of research and find out whether all EFL learners adopt kidrule and investigate what prompts its use. This finding is equally important because it enlightens dictionary-makers about the limitations of some defining styles. Two points can be questioned in this study.

Surprisingly, Miller and Gildea did not mention dictionary definitions as a contributory factor to children's errors. They only said that definitions were loaded with more information than the pupils had known how to use. However, they did not define the exact problem with the definitions. It seems that they assumed that the children were mostly to blame for the kidrule strategy. This seems not to be true all the time. Other research (e.g. Nesi, 1987) showed that some definitions were difficult and others were incomprehensible. Sometimes, definitions were formulated in a way which encouraged children to extract certain parts as if they bore the whole meaning. In some definitions, certain words (especially weak synonyms) were highlighted more than others. As in 1.4.3.3, modified definitions resulted in many fewer errors.

Miller and Gildea provided subjects with decontextualised words and asked them to write sentences using their meanings. It is likely that if those words were contextualised, fewer errors would have been made. Putting words in context helps users grasp information related to the correct usage of the word, particularly if explanations do not contain collocators. Stahl

and Fairbanks (1986) concluded that applying a definitional AND a contextual approach is more effective than either one on its own.

1.4.3.3. McKeown (1993)

McKeown investigates the effectiveness of revised definitions (RD) with American pupils. She attempts to show dictionary definitions' (DD) counter-productiveness and suggests some measures for creating new definitions to help young children.

McKeown looks into some studies (e.g. Miller and Gildea, 1985 and Scott and Nagy, 1989) which revealed children's problems with using dictionaries for production. She carries out a close analysis of some of the materials used in these studies and designs new definitions to account for the drawbacks of traditional dictionary definitions. Having investigated what is problematic about dictionary definitions, McKeown sets some principles for writing definitions. These are summarised below.

1. *Identify role of the word*: before defining any word, one should know what role this word performs in the language. When do people use this word?
2. *Characterise the word*: the meaning of a word should be explained by pinpointing its prototypical use.
3. *Make meaning accessible*: definitions should not require the reader to go through several steps of interpretation.
4. *Arrange for attention for the whole definition*: definitions should not be framed in a way that allows the reader to pick up one fragment of the definition as the meaning intended. Basically, one has not to lay emphasis on certain parts of the definition which may give the reader the impression that they are interchangeable with the defined word.

McKeown gave the RD and DD to a graduate class of ten students (all were experienced teachers) in order to test their intuition on these definitions. The panel had to say which definition was better for each word. 92% of the judgements favoured RD because they were more straightforward and more descriptive.

Two tasks were designed to investigate the productivity of RD, producing sentences and answering questions about the target words. 12 words (all were assumed to be unknown to the subjects) were used in each task, six were common to the two tasks. These words were thought "to reflect all of the definition problem categories and a range of differences between the revised and dictionary definitions" (p.24).

24 fifth graders participated in the sentence composition task. Two judges classified pupils' sentences either as appropriate or inappropriate. 50% RD were considered appropriate but only 25% DD. 50% RD were considered inappropriate compared to 75% DD.

60 different fifth graders responded to the question task. To ensure that pupil performance is based on information solely derived from the definitions, the stimulus words were replaced by nonwords. TORDENT, for example, was substituted for PRUDENT. Pupils had to answer two questions about each word. Three categories were sorted for their responses. These were: distinct, clearly appropriate answers; generic, responses which were not incorrect but did not represent a strong application of the word; and unacceptable, completely incorrect answers. The results showed that 41% RD answers were 'distinct' versus 14% DD; 27% RD answers were 'generic' versus 26% DD and 32% RD answers were unacceptable versus 60%

DD. Clearly, DD users produced the largest proportion for unacceptable sentences. Significantly, RD lead to more 'distinct' answers than DD.

A few days after the tests, McKeown engaged the testees with a follow-up activity to elicit some information about their reaction to the two types of definition. 80% of the subjects (total 157) favoured RD.

This study is remarkable in highlighting an important issue which has apparently been neglected by language teachers. Teachers seem to consider dictionary definitions problem-free. They place all blame for errors with the user. I believe that current dictionary definitions should be examined to determine why they are far less effective than dictionary-compilers anticipated. Dictionary-compilers need to conduct large-scale research with EFL learners of different linguistic backgrounds to assess current dictionary definitions and determine their weaknesses. McKeown's research is one step in this direction. Research has shown that some dictionary definitions are notoriously prone to kidrule, semantic and collocational errors. Interestingly, it appears that revised definitions which account for previous defects are successful. McKeown's research is not without drawbacks, nevertheless. Two points bear scrutiny.

McKeown's definitions are still in need of some improvement. In view of Nesi and Meara (1994), I think that these definitions will not be very effective with EFL learners for two reasons. First, although RD were far better than DD, sometimes they contained very infrequent words which were unlikely to be known by users. MORBID, for example,

contained the word "gruesome". This contradicts her principle set for designing new definitions.

Secondly, RD hardly contained any collocates of the target word. (E.g. INSPIRE gives only "idea"). No mention was made of any other things (e.g. aim, reaction, emotion, respect, confidence, etc.) that one can inspire others with. Similarly, we have no idea about which verb can occur with ILLUSION. Possibly, McKeown believes that young children learn these collocations unconsciously. It is doubtful that young learners know what can be used with words they meet for the first time. They are unlikely to distinguish that "create", "dispel" and "cherish" can be used with ILLUSION and "make", "enhance" or "abandon" cannot. Likewise, in the definition of IMPROVISE, i.e. "to make something you need using whatever is available at the moment". It is unlikely that users who have not known this word before could use it correctly in all contexts. The definition offers little help in showing "what one can improvise". According to the definition, one can say "improvise a house", "improvise an aeroplane", etc..

Unfortunately, McKeown did not analyse the erroneous sentences produced with the revised definitions. We still want to know what type of error the new definitions induced. She should have established whether such definitions prevented the use of the kidrule strategy. Likewise, whether they occurred because users confused the target words with other orthographically or phonologically similar words. Also, whether a target word was prone to certain errors more than other words. These points still await clarification.

In summary, the results obtained in this study are encouraging. They should provide a strong incentive for lexicographers to improve the quality of some definitions. Rather than defining words according to their intuition, lexicographers should produce definitions that are in line with dictionary users needs. In this way, definitions would be more helpful to users.

1.4.3.4. Nesi (1994)

This thesis is primarily devoted to EFL learner productive dictionary use. It describes a set of separate studies which investigate learner skills in using MDs for reading comprehension and sentence production.

First, Nesi considers the effect of dictionary use on user performance in multiple-choice reading comprehension tests. Here, she describes a replication of Bensoussan et al. (1984) which investigated the effect of dictionary use on language task performance. One pilot and two in-depth studies were conducted.

Nesi gave two texts of 812 words in all to 20 EFL learners. The subjects had to answer a 15-multiple choice question test. In the pilot study, ten subjects used ALD whereas the other ten used no dictionary. The results showed that dictionary users took longer to complete their tests. Dictionary use appeared to affect subject scores only slightly. These results tallied with Bensoussan et al.'s regarding the effect of dictionary use, but not the speed of task completion. This difference drove Nesi to repeat the study with a larger number of subjects. This time, she allowed the testees to use any dictionary they liked. A new finding that contradicts Bensoussan et al.'s emerged. It appeared that the high and low scorers were

dictionary users.

Nesi conducted a third study to confirm the above finding about test completion speed. Here, she asked the testees to underline the unfamiliar words in the text and indicate the words they looked up. The results demonstrated no significant effect for dictionary use on the reading comprehension scores. Again, dictionary users took longer to complete the test. This confirmed the previous findings concerning the correlation between dictionary use and test completion.

Having examined the entries for the target words in the dictionaries used, Nesi argued that unclear explanations were mostly the cause of trouble. Sometimes, the poor results were because subjects did not look up the words critical to text comprehension. This explanation seems sensible and may account for the contrasting results reached by other researchers (e.g. Summers, 1988; Bogaards, 1991b; Luppescu and Day, 1993 and Knight, 1994). This difference seems to be caused by the type of test and materials used and also by participants' proficiency level.

Secondly, Nesi investigates the effect of different dictionary defining styles on productive dictionary use. The stimuli were 18 infrequent words. She used a computer to display the materials and save the data. Two words, one frequent (an additional word introduced to deter subjects from remodelling on the examples in the entries) and one infrequent (target word), were displayed on one screen. Subjects had to compose a sentence containing the two words. They could do so either immediately or after consulting a dictionary entry for the infrequent

word. The explanation appears on another screen on request by pressing "return". The entries were taken from ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE.

The participants, 52 EFL learners, were randomly divided into three groups, each worked with a different dictionary. These learners carried out 712 look-ups. Three judges agreed that 65.5% of the sentences were unacceptable. No significant difference was demonstrated among the three groups regarding number of words looked up; time taken to read the definitions and number of correct sentences.

Nesi classified three categories of errors: Semantic, syntactic and usage. A MANOVA showed no significant difference amongst these types of errors. Likewise, no dictionary significantly induced more errors of these types. Nesi discovered that different kinds of errors occurred with different target words. Data showed that many usage errors occurred where there was some constraint on the use of the target word. Subjects were notoriously prone to semantic errors when the collocates of the target word were limited.

Nesi attributed more than a quarter of the errors to subjects' application of kidrule (see 1.4.3.2). Sometimes, their overreliance on one sense of the target word caused them some trouble. At other times, some subjects failed to use the grammatical and collocational information in the definitions. Also, some subjects confused the target word with other similar words.

Thirdly, Nesi considers the effect of language background and culture on productive

dictionary use. Subjects were 51 Portuguese and 44 Malaysian undergraduates studying to become teachers of English at tertiary level in Portugal and Malaysia, respectively. Their task was the same as above but the entries used were drawn from LDOCE alone. The subject-generated sentences were rated according to a 1-6 rating scale, from completely inappropriate to completely appropriate. The results showed that the Malaysians significantly looked up more words, took longer to read the explanation and composed more erroneous sentences.

It was possible that the Portuguese group had benefited very much from cognates in their L1. Nesi finds that 14 out of the 18 target words had a Portuguese cognate whereas only six words had cognates in Malay. She concludes that "the English language learning background of subjects, cultural attitudes to task completion, and the proximity of English to mother tongue" (p.253) are responsible for the differences in dictionary use between the two groups.

Finally, Nesi addresses the role of examples in productive dictionary use. The participants were 40 EFL learners. Their task was the same as above. The materials were two versions of LDOCE entries. In the first version, Nesi removed all examples from the entries for the first nine words and retained the examples in the rest. The situation was reversed in the second version.

All sentences produced were categorised either as appropriate (the use of the target word was acceptable) or inappropriate (the use of the target word was unacceptable). It appeared that the learners who worked with entries containing examples took longer to read the

explanation. This difference, however, was not significant. As to the success achieved, the learners who worked with entries containing examples did better, but again this result was not significant. This finding confirms what has been reached in other studies (e.g. Black, 1986 and Cumming et al., 1994). Illustrative sentences in dictionaries seemed to offer little help. Such a result is certainly frustrating for dictionary-makers who have given examples considerable attention. Nesi argues that it was possible that the examples used were problematic.

Nesi's thesis reveals interesting findings and confirms some other results from previous research into productive dictionary use. For example, Nesi has been the first to discover that EFL learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds had a bearing on their productive dictionary use. This contradicted Battenburg's findings that learners with different L1 behaved similarly. It is still worth doing some in-depth research into different aspects of productive dictionary use with different samples of EFL learners. It is possible that learners' L1 dictionary use habits may interfere in their productive use of dictionaries.

Nesi's research into the effectiveness of the existing dictionary explanations validated dictionary users' claims about problematic definitions. This is especially important because it relates to some themes discussed in the present thesis. However, this research is not disadvantage-free. Two points evoke some comment.

First, it seems that some of Nesi's results were affected by her methodology. Nesi did not give users the opportunity to access dictionary explanation at will after initial reading. They

could not check what they wrote against dictionary explanation afterwards. The computer program offers two different screens for each target word. The first screen displays the two words in question and some permissible derivatives of the main word. The second screen presents the explanation. However, users could not type anything on the same screen where the dictionary entry appeared. I wonder whether they could remember the meanings (all the senses of the stimuli were presented) until they went back to the first screen and decided which of those meanings could be used with the second word, i.e. frequent word. If in doubt, users cannot turn back to the explanation. However, there should have been many ways to improve the design of the program and overcome this disadvantage.

Secondly, because of some technical problems, Nesi omitted some features of the entries used, i.e. COBUILD extra column. The extra column is all-important. It usually provides dictionary users with some information that may help them understand the defined word and use it appropriately. For example, it gives users the prepositions that usually collocate with the word in question. It is likely that the absence of the extra column caused the non-significant difference between the different dictionary defining styles demonstrated by the statistics used.

Like the issue of the effectiveness of dictionary use in reading comprehension, the usefulness of examples is still controversial. Nesi has found that entries with and entries without illustrative sentences did not differ when it came to productive dictionary use. Other studies (Black, 1986 and Cumming et al., 1994) have found no significant difference between learner production with entries containing examples and entries without examples. Other studies

using schoolchildren and EFL learners found different results. Wurtenberg and Gildea (1988) claimed that examples might be more helpful than definitions in learning new words (see also Miller and Gildea above). Laufer (1992) has found that comprehension is better when words are defined and given examples. Nesi argues that users might not have made improvement with entries containing examples because of flaws in the examples used. These examples may not be expressive since they do not usually indicate which collocational information is optional, and which is obligatory. They could not add information that users missed because of the absence of examples. This suggests that the argument that examples are almost redundant should be suspended until some research employing more sophisticated methods of collecting evidence for this issue is carried out.

Possibly, researchers have to investigate this issue with many rare lexical items, idioms, culturally-specific words, slang words and all types of compounds. They can also test this with words whose usage is totally different from that of EFL learners' L1 equivalent translation. It is likely that learners usually profit from their mother tongue knowledge about the usage of the equivalent translations of the target words. Actually, this was demonstrated in the sentences of the Portuguese group (see above). This way, we may observe a significant difference between the performance of users of both types of entries. If examples appear to be redundant, why not use their space to present other information that benefits dictionary users.

1.4.4. Conclusion on research into the productive use of dictionaries

The findings of the studies evaluated above are important because they have helped unveil,

though partially, the picture of dictionary use in real-life activities. Likewise, they confirm some of the points dictionary users often report as being problematic. Some studies have shown a close association between dictionary users' linguistic backgrounds and their productive dictionary use. Other studies have not found any relation between these variables. This suggests that it would be useful to carry out a series of studies with one population to verify the findings of others.

Some studies (e.g. Nesi, 1994) focused on EFL learner use of dictionary explanations. EFL learners appeared to encounter many problems with handling definitions, e.g. kidrule. To be effective, Nesi argues, MDs have to be more user-friendly and should present clearer definitions. However, Nesi did not present a model of what she called 'clearer definitions'. Mitchell (1983b) and Miller and Gildea (1985) showed that schoolchildren were mostly unsuccessful in looking up words and using them in productive tasks. The findings of these studies allow me to argue that EFL dictionary user problems are not different from native users. This was clearly shown in the similar types of errors made by Mitchell, Miller and Gildea and Nesi's subjects when using MDs for reading comprehension and sentence composition.

One startling finding discovered in this type of research is that dictionary use did not help EFL learners improve their reading comprehension (e.g. Bensoussan et al., 1984 and Nesi, 1994). This holds true to both BDs and MDs. However, Atkins and Knowles (1990) claimed that MDs users scored better than BDs. Sometimes, dictionary user failure was due to the lack of understanding definitions (Miller and Gildea, 1985). At other times, users ignored

some information present in the explanation (Mitchell, 1983b and Neubach and Cohen, 1988). Nesi (1987:95) ascribes this to dictionaries which "can seriously mislead the student, even in the choice of comparatively common words". This appears to confirm Nesi's (1994) suggestion that the construction of dictionary entries should be examined with a view, perhaps, to providing 'clearer' definitions.

It is true that some definitions were ambiguous and might have caused users to make errors. But nonetheless, this gloomy outlook should not deter us from improving the quality of the present definitions to meet the wants and demands of EFL learners. Surely, there is a way of improving definitions. McKeown (1993) showed that new definitions, written to account for target users, were effective. A similar attempt is made in chapter 7.

Most studies above are not without disadvantages. One disadvantage is that no control was established over the type of dictionary in use. Occasionally, many learners who should have used dictionaries did not do so. Thus, the number of dictionary users was very small. I would suggest that this considerably affected the results reached. A second disadvantage is that little explanation was offered to justify some rather surprising results. Possibly, this was because of the nature of the tests used. A third disadvantage is that these studies only concentrated on the semantic features of MDs. The syntactic, phonetic and stylistic features received only scant attention. More importantly, none of these studies attempted to investigate dictionary users' problems with collocations. We still do not know whether dictionary users can extrapolate from the present dictionary explanations what can collocate with the defined words. This point will be considered in chapter 6.

1.5. General conclusion

The body of evidence gathered from this chapter is not conclusive enough to help draw a real image of EFL learners' use of MDs. Most studies report on users' perceptions rather than on their actual use of MDs. A gap still exists in the knowledge about many aspects of dictionary use and dictionary users' approaches to dictionary information. Hartmann (1989:213) points out that "much needs to be done to perfect our knowledge" regarding actual dictionary use. Past research has not enormously contributed to unveiling the real reasons behind learners' problems with MDs. Some of the results reached are still far from being generalised, nevertheless. This was due to the small number of participants, the defects of the materials used or even to the method of analysis applied. This makes it difficult to determine whom to blame for the non-productivity of EFL dictionaries. Some more research using different data collection methods is still obligatory before any general conclusions are drawn.

Many problems have emerged from the aforementioned studies. There seems to be general agreement amongst most studies on three problematic areas in dictionary use. None of these areas has been thoroughly researched yet. Likewise, none of these areas has been investigated with Arab learners of English.

First, most questionnaire-based studies have shown that dictionary users complained that they did not find many of the words and meanings looked up in dictionaries. It seems that most researchers have not realised the gravity of this issue and consequently they have ignored it. Apart from Neubach and Cohen (1988), as far as I am aware, nobody has attempted to investigate this problem. Neubach and Cohen's study was not entirely dedicated to this issue,

nonetheless. It is thus worth taking the trouble to find out what might have caused this problem (see chapter 3).

Secondly, EFL learners from different linguistic backgrounds appear to look up compounds differently. Findings seem to suggest that each population has its own look-up strategy. Sometimes, the look-up operations are possibly affected by dictionary user's L1 look-up strategies. In many cases, those look-ups are incorrect. However, the evidence for this issue is not cogent because it was mostly gathered from a single question included in SOME surveys of learners' reference needs. Usually, researchers provide informants with one or two compound nouns and draw conclusions from the data obtained. Tono (1988) seems to be the only study devoted wholly to examining EFL learners' look-ups of idioms. It is useful to examine EFL learners' look-up strategies of compounds. An investigation into EFL learners' look-up strategies is carried out in chapters 3 and 4.

Thirdly, most studies into dictionary user reference needs have discovered that most users, including native speakers, have problems with understanding dictionary explanations. Studies into user reference skills have not found out what was problematic with these explanations. The focus of research has primarily centred on whether dictionary use would improve language learning and reading comprehension (e.g. Bensoussan et al., 1984; Tono, 1989 and Luppescu and Day, 1993). No single study, however, has paid attention to the use of some important information, e.g. collocations, synonyms, grammar, etc. which might have made definitions unsatisfactory. We still know nothing on how EFL learners utilise collocational information. Some profound research into the use of dictionary explanation is

still required to establish why dictionary users derive only little benefit from dictionary explanation. This could probably be due to the absence of some information from dictionary entries (see chapters 5 and 6). Tomaszczyk (1983:42) argues that dictionaries are still 'diagnostic' rather than 'generating'. Would some revised dictionary entries help improve EFL learners' production tasks? This is what we shall see in chapter 7.

Since none of these problems delineated above has been researched with Arabic-speaking learners of English, it would appear useful to investigate them in this thesis. This will illuminate the way Arab learners of English deal and interact with MDs. Arab learners may use MDs differently from other EFL learners because of their different L1 dictionary usage habits. As we noticed above, some studies suggest that cultural and linguistic differences play an active role in user performance. English language learners from different language backgrounds appear to behave differently when responding to the same task and using same materials.

In the next chapter, I shall embark on a replication of a study reviewed above in order to find out whether Arab learners encounter the problems outlined above. In the chapters which follow, I propose to investigate what is problematic in Arab learners' reference needs and reference skills. These problems are explored so the reasons behind them can be revealed. I hope that the findings will be of use to lexicographers and teachers alike.

Chapter two
Monolingual learners' dictionaries and Arab learners of English

2.1. Introduction

Prior research has shown that three aspects of dictionary use were difficult for some users. These are: (a) *finding words*: dictionary users often claimed that many words were missing (b) *compounds' look-ups*: many dictionary users appeared to look up compounds incorrectly, each population apparently having its own look-up strategy and (c) *unclear definitions*: most dictionary users claimed that some definitions were unclear or hard to understand.

These findings have encouraged me to set out this project to obtain some empirical data regarding the causes of the above problems, specifically relating to Arab learners of English. Before investigating further, it would be wise to ascertain whether Arab learners of English actually encounter the same problems as other learners. As well as the above, I suspect they may encounter some problems which are Arab-exclusive. Several reasons encourage me to believe this. Firstly, Arabic-speaking learners of English do not habitually use dictionaries in their L1. This is because Arabic is based on a tri-consonantal root system whereby each root provides the basic lexical content of words (McArthur, 1992). If the root is known, one can tell the meaning of all the related forms of the target word. This habit may deter Arab learners from consulting English MDs. Consequently, when used, they are often used inefficiently.

Secondly, Arabic script is different from that of West-European languages. Arabs may find it hard to read and understand the definitions in English MDs. Recent research has found that

Arab learners of English encounter difficulties with handling the English script (cf. King, 1986; Al-Hazemi, 1993 and Ryan, 1994). Thirdly, Arab learners cultural and environmental backgrounds may affect their use of English MDs. These cultural differences sometimes affect dictionary users' reference needs (Greenbaum et al., 1984) and dictionary users' reference skills (Nesi, 1994). American students' reasons for using MDs were slightly different from British students'. Portuguese learners of English produced fewer erroneous sentences than their Malaysian counterparts. In the light of these findings, I expect the needs of Arab learners to be different from other EFL learners'.

In order to gather evidence relating to dictionary use, it is logical to replicate a study into learner reference needs revealing these problematic areas. Béjoint (1981), despite its limitations (see chapter 1), is more convenient and less disadvantageous than most other studies into EFL learners' reference needs. Many other reasons encouraged me to choose this study. Béjoint's study is widely cited in literature and his conclusions are generally agreed. His questionnaire covered many aspects of dictionary use. In particular, Béjoint's findings that many categories of information in MDs were mostly neglected and that MDs were mainly used for decoding are worth further investigation. More importantly, Béjoint's study contained questions about the three problematic aspects of dictionary use described earlier.

Below, I shall describe a replication of Béjoint (1981). The results obtained are reported in 2.2.5 alongside Béjoint's.

2.2. The study

This replication will help us gain some insight into the way Arab learners of English deal with MDs. Not all Arab learners are expected to own MDs. They may use them considerably less than French learners because they seldom refer to dictionaries to decode words in their L1.

2.2.1. Aim

In this study, I intend to consider the following issues:

1. The purpose for which Arab learners use MDs. Here, I wish to know (a) the type of information referred to most often and (b) whether MDs are more used for decoding or encoding. I expect learners to use MDs mostly for encoding because they are studying abroad and they have to speak the language and submit written work quite often. In addition, I expect Arab learners to use some information more often, e.g. grammar, because their L1 grammar differs considerably from that of English.
2. Arab learners' familiarity with MDs and their problems with using these tools. Here, I hope to ascertain whether Arab learners are acquainted with the information present in MDs and whether they have neglected some of this information. In addition, I want to establish whether they encounter the same problems faced by other learners. In the light of findings from prior research, I expect Arab learners not to be familiar with all the information present in MDs. Because most subjects are studying sciences, where rare words are frequently encountered, it is likely that they suffer from the problem of missing words. Their look-up operations may be faulty and differ from other dictionary

users'. To a large extent, this will be determined by their familiarity with MDs front matter and by their training in dictionary use.

3. Arab learners' attitudes towards their MDs. Here, I seek to unveil what Arab learners require in an ideal dictionary and whether they have specific needs to be met. Like other studies, I expect Arab learners to rate MDs second to BDs. Also, they may be critical of MDs long entries and hard explanations.

2.2.2. Materials

Béjoint's questionnaire was the material used in this study. The original consisted of 21 questions. These questions were not 'exhaustive'. It might have been useful to change, delete or add some questions. Being a replication, I only introduced minor changes to some of Béjoint's questions. These changes (see appendix 1) were deemed essential for the clarity of some woolly questions. If not split and put more clearly, these questions would have confused respondents. Also, frequency scales were mostly avoided because these appeared to encourage respondents' inconsistency (cf. chapter 1). In the discussion below, I will confine myself to Béjoint's specification.

2.2.3. Subjects

The subjects were 37 Arabic-speaking learners of English (henceforth, ARA) studying at British Universities, mostly postgraduate science-majors. The subjects were thus consulted as language users rather than language specialists. Béjoint's subjects, French-speaking learners of English (henceforth, FRE), however, were far larger in number, 122.

To get an homogeneous and able group of learners, I used Meara's (1992a) *EFL Vocabulary Tests*. This set of tests has been devised to measure six proficiency levels of foreign learners of English. Subjects did test (318), i.e. No.18 at level three. Scores below 70 were dropped because subjects with such scores were unlikely to belong to the homogeneous group I wish to examine. This procedure will be followed throughout the thesis, unless otherwise indicated. The mean score of the remaining subjects on the above test was (92.7, Sd 6.4) (max.100).

2.2.4. Procedure

Most learners completed the forms in the presence of the researcher. The latter assisted them in understanding the questions and clarified any points that seemed vague. Usually, subjects were asked to answer by means of a check mark [√]. There were only a few questions that required them to write down short answers. Subjects were instructed to tick only the type of information or activity for which they really referred to MDs.

All subjects' responses were analysed and the frequencies for all responses were computed. In addition, I ran some cross-tabulations when I deemed this useful.

2.2.5. The questionnaire: results and data analysis

The results obtained from this survey are evaluated below. Brief comments are made where relevant and a comparison with Béjoint's results is drawn. Occasionally, the present results are compared with the results from other studies into dictionary user reference needs. For ease of reading, the original questions are reproduced below.

Question 1: Do you own a monolingual English dictionary?

All respondents claimed that they possessed at least one monolingual dictionary. General and restricted dictionaries were included (see question 2). In comparison, 96% FRE owned MDs. This result does not support my speculation that not all subjects might have MDs. Possibly, this was due to their stay in Britain. However, this high percentage of dictionary ownership supports Carter and McCarthy's (1988b) assumption that almost all ESL/EFL learners own a dictionary.

Question 2: Which dictionary (or dictionaries) do you own?

A variety of dictionaries were named by subjects. Specifically, three dictionaries had the highest proportions. These were ALD, owned by 32% of the subjects; LDOCE, owned by 24% of the subjects and COBUILD, owned only by 13% of the subjects. Some scientific, general and American dictionaries were mentioned but the proportions were negligible. ALD also had the greatest proportion of owners among the French sample, 45%. LDOCE was owned by almost the same percentage of ARA, 27%. Sora (1984) found that most Italian learners of English own ALD. One cannot account for the prestige ALD is endowed with at the expense of the other MDs. Probably, teachers recommend the use of this dictionary.

Question 3: Why did you choose the main one you bought?

35% ARA claimed that they bought their MDs on teachers or friends' advice. 13% ARA said

that they bought MDs because of their low price. (Probably these were bought during a sale). 8% ARA said that they bought their MDs to increase and enrich their vocabulary. Another 8% bought MDs to help them in their field of specialisation (reference is made here to specialised dictionaries). The remaining respondents did not mention any reason. Presumably, they were not sure of why they bought their MDs. It is relevant to say that these reasons were subjects' own answers.

85% FRE said that they bought their MDs on their tutors' recommendations. This finding agrees with Sora (1984) and Atkins and Knowles' (1990) findings. About 74% of Atkins and Knowles' subjects bought their dictionaries on teachers, friends or booksellers' advice. The difference between my results and Béjoint's may be attributed to the fact that most Arab subjects did their first degree in Arabic. This means that they hardly needed any monolingual dictionary for their study (see question 4). If bought, MDs were likely to be used for personal interest. It is possible that subjects would buy any dictionary they saw displayed on bookshop shelves. By contrast, FRE were studying to become teachers of English. This implies that they had the chance to be advised on which dictionary to buy. Apparently, FRE relied entirely on their tutors' advice. This can be attributed to the fact that some EFL departments make a habit of expecting EFL learners to buy a certain dictionary deemed to be appropriate for them.

Question 4: When did you buy it?

24% ARA claimed that they had bought MDs before their arrival in Britain, ranging between

1 and 11 years. Possibly, they bought their MDs at the early stages of their learning English, viz. at preparatory or secondary classes. Most of Baxter's (1980) subjects bought their MDs before enroling at university. Those who bought their MDs in the same year as their arrival in Britain numbered 32%. The highest proportion of respondents, 43%, said that they bought their dictionaries one year after they had started their study in Britain. It is difficult to tell whether these students could decide which dictionary was most appropriate for them, during a short period of stay in Britain. 55% and 29% of Béjoint's students, in comparison, bought their MDs in their first and second years of study, respectively.

Question 5: What other monolingual general English dictionaries do you use?

Only 25% ARA claimed that they owned or used general MDs besides their main dictionaries. Other general references mentioned were thesauri, defined terms, scientific or pocket dictionaries. This may suggest that most subjects were satisfied with their sole MDs (see question 14). Possibly, they were much more dependent on BDs. Béjoint, on the other hand, claimed that only a few subjects answered this question, repeating what they mentioned in question 1. Béjoint claimed that this was due to student reliance on teacher advice about choosing appropriate MDs.

Question 6: If you use several dictionaries, is there one that you prefer? Why?

Only 30% ARA appeared to prefer a particular dictionary to all others. ALD appeared to be the most acclaimed by ARA. Other dictionaries preferred were restricted ones. 55%

respondents claimed that their preference was because of the considerable number of entries contained in the dictionary mentioned. 22% of respondents preferred their dictionary because it was handy and small or perceived as helpful in their field of speciality.

Béjoint received only a few answers to this question. The respondents insisted on the same dictionaries they mentioned earlier. Although no proportions were given, some French subjects claimed that they favoured certain dictionaries because these included a great number of entries.

Question 7: How often do you use a monolingual dictionary?

Only 35% ARA claimed that they referred to MDs daily. Learners who study in an English-speaking country are expected to use dictionaries often, because of their daily contact with the language. This low proportion was possibly due to the use of BDs. 32% ARA referred to MDs several times per week; 5% used them once a week and 27% used them less often. This latter result is surprising. I presume that this rather high proportion of infrequent use of MDs was because learners had familiarised themselves with the terminology in their specialisation. They no longer needed to refer to dictionaries so often. It is likely, however, that they were so fluent that their reference to a dictionary was infrequent. Better EFL learners need to use dictionaries less often compared with less proficient learners (Bensoussan et al., 1984 and Neubach and Cohen, 1988).

Béjoint's findings were slightly different from the above ones. 40% FRE used their MDs

daily and 52% used them at least once a week. Baxter, in comparison, reported that only 11% of Japanese students consulted MDs daily. One cannot think of any reason for such a result but to ascribe it to learner over-reliance on BDs.

Question 8: Which types of information do you look for most often in your dictionary?

ARA claimed that they usually referred to more than one kind of information. This may suggest that they were conscious of what existed in MDs. As always, meaning was ranked first most frequently. 97% ARA were preoccupied with meaning. This suggests that MDs are an indispensable source for comprehension and meaning clarification and verification. Other categories of information were used by much fewer subjects. 65% ARA used dictionaries for spelling. Next, but some way behind, came pronunciation, 43%. ARA were expected to consult MDs for spelling more often because of the inconsistency of the English orthography in comparison with Arabic which has a phonemic writing system. In similar vein, ARA seemed not to bother very much about pronunciation since they were not accustomed to referring to a dictionary to check pronunciation in their mother tongue.

20% ARA looked for synonyms. A disappointingly small percentage of users consulted for grammar, 16%. Unlike Diab (1990), very few subjects looked up etymology. These results show that most learners have only exploited the lexical information present in MDs. Béjoint found that the most commonly consulted information was meaning, 87%. Grammar, although far behind, came next in order of priority, 53% (cf. Tomaszczyk, 1979 and Sora, 1984). I think that this high proportion for grammar use was because of three reasons.

First, FRE were aware of the existence of grammatical information in dictionaries but ARA were not. Secondly, it is possible that ARA might have not understood the grammar present in MDs. Herbst and Stein (1987) point out that advanced learners failed to grasp all grammatical symbols and profit from all grammatical information in MDs. Stein (1990:404) believes that "The strong grammatical component in EFL dictionaries increases this reluctance [the learner's] to use such dictionaries...". Thirdly, being English-majors, FRE might have felt that they should possess considerable knowledge of grammar. Other dictionary users majoring in English were found to use MDs for grammar quite often (cf. Sora, 1984; Kharma, 1985 and Snell-Hornby, 1987). It is likely that ARA might have possessed sufficient amounts of syntactic knowledge, thereby requiring fewer look-ups. Actually, most Arab learners of English have been taught English grammar in schools. Most English syllabi in the Arab world are still grammatically orientated.

Spelling and pronunciation were rarely consulted by Béjoint's subjects. Similar proportions were found in both cases, i.e. 25%. Possibly, FRE profited a lot from cognates for both pronunciation and spelling. Synonyms were much less hunted for by Arabs than by FRE. It is difficult to tell why this percentage was so low (cf. question 18).

Question 9: For which sort of activity do you most often use your dictionary?

ARA reported that they used MDs for a variety of activities. Top of the list came writing at 64%. This was followed by reading at 62%. Apparently, many Arab students did not use MDs for either writing or reading. Possibly, they might have used BDs. Actually, El-Badry

found that about 93% of her subjects used BDs for reading activities. Next, but some way behind came listening at 27%. Fourth came speaking at 21%. It seems that ARA tended to use MDs for speaking more than other EFL learners. I suspect that learners might use a dictionary when preparing for their seminars, tutors' meetings or even for doing some daily activities, e.g. shopping. Diab (1990) claims that (209 out of 278) subjects reported that they used dictionaries in their preparation for oral presentations. In general, dictionary use for speaking is less popular than for other activities. 59% ARA used MDs for translation from English into Arabic, L2-L1, and 16% used them for L1-L2 translation.

In comparison, Béjoint reported that 60% and 58% FRE used MDs for writing and reading, respectively. Only 9% and 14% FRE used MDs for listening and speaking, respectively. 86% FRE claimed that they used MDs for L2-L1 translation whereas the proportion was 58% for the reverse process. Presumably, this high percentage was because FRE were studying translation as a main subject.

Despite the fact that ARA were non-specialists in language, the findings of both studies were similar. Only a small proportion of both samples relied on MDs for written activities (subsumed under encoding) in comparison with that for oral activities (subsumed under decoding). Intuitively, I expect these results to vary according to the learners' field of study and the stage at which they are. For example, if all learners are at the writing up stage, it is likely that they will use MDs extensively for writing.

Question 10: Do you sometimes browse through your dictionary without looking for anything in particular?

77% ARA said that they sometimes consulted MDs for no particular reason but just to acquire something new. In contrast, only 55% of Béjoint's subjects appeared to browse through MDs. Surprisingly, Iqbal (1987) reported that only 7% of Pakistani EFL learners said that they browsed through MDs.

Diab (1990:175) calls upon dictionary-makers and course planners to capitalise on this habit among dictionary users. To motivate EFL learners and arouse their curiosity to browse through dictionaries, the metalanguage should be easy to understand. Grammar also, as Lemmens and Wekker (1991) argue, ought to be made as simple and attractive as possible. It is possible that the coding system might sometimes discourage EFL learners from browsing through dictionaries.

Question 11: How carefully did you study the introductory matter?

Only 27% ARA reported that they read the introductory matters thoroughly. Those who read them less than thoroughly, viz. only parts of them were 51%. To dictionary-makers' disappointment, 21% ARA had not read the front matters at all. Béjoint, on the other hand, stated that none of his subjects read the introductory matters thoroughly. 55% FRE reported that they read these matters less than thoroughly. It appeared that 34% FRE never took the trouble to study these matters.

Question 12: Have you ever used the information at the end of the dictionary?

Only 16% ARA appeared to look up irregular verbs and 32% searched for units of measurement. In comparison, 30% and 27% FRE referred to back matters for checking irregular verbs and units of measurement, respectively.

Question 13: Do you use the codes that indicate how a word should be used?

Surprisingly 70% ARA appeared to make use of codes. The proportion of French students who used codes was much lower. This finding contradicts the proportion of grammar users reported in question 8. The number of Arab subjects who said that they used MDs for codes was larger than that of those who said that they used MDs for grammar. The reverse was true with the French subjects- the percentage of grammar users was larger than that for code users. It is possible that the question was badly worded so that both populations misunderstood what was meant by 'codes'. Unfortunately, there was no question to elicit information about whether these codes were esoteric as claimed by other dictionary users.

Question 14: Are you satisfied with your monolingual English dictionary? More, or less satisfied, than with your bilingual dictionary?

78% ARA expressed their satisfaction with their MDs. This very result leads us to acknowledge the claim that, the more advanced the learners, the more they will be satisfied with MDs (Tomaszczyk, 1979; Bensoussan et al., 1984; Neubach and Cohen, 1988; Atkins and Knowles, 1990 and Battenburg, 1991). A cross-tabulation run revealed that 81%, 80%

and 77% of the subjects who owned ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE, respectively, were satisfied with their dictionaries. Like other studies, 56% of ARA were more satisfied with BDs than with MDs. However, Atkins and Knowles (1990) argue that EFL learners are more in favour of BDs than MDs when it comes to writing (cf. Sora, 1984). Presumably, some learners consider BDs less cumbersome than MDs, or as Hartmann (1983a) states they find them more satisfactory. Béjoint and Moulin (1987) point out that learners resort to BDs because they do not know how and what to look up in MDs.

Whatever the reason was, BDs, as Ard (1982) argues, promote different types of immediate errors. Zughoul (1991) argues that bilingual English-Arabic dictionaries are misleading especially when two English vocabulary items have one equivalent in Arabic.

77% FRE claimed that they were contented with their MDs. Around half of them were more satisfied with MDs than with BDs. Unlike ARA, only 17% FRE were more satisfied with BDs than with MDs. Unfortunately, no question was included to ask subjects about reasons for their preferences.

Question 15: Can you recall occasions when you could not find what you were looking for?

59% ARA reported that their problem was missing words. This problem was encountered by most dictionary users (see chapter 1). However, the proportion of Arab learners who complained about this problem is greater than other studies. It is therefore worthy of investigation to uncover the reasons behind it. Cross-tabulating the proportion for missing

words with MDs in use, I found that 35%, 20% and 20% of the subjects who encountered this problem were ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE users, respectively.

Surprisingly, only 26% ARA indicated that they had faced problems with MDs definitions. This result shows that the supposition about this aspect of dictionary use was wrong. I perceived that most ARA might have trouble with reading and understanding dictionary definitions. This problem was widely reported among other EFL learners (cf. Béjoint and Moulin, 1987). Unfortunately, no question was included to specify what was wrong with these definitions. It is worth designing some studies to closely consider the way ARA handle dictionary definitions. A cross-tabulation run showed that the largest proportion for complaint about definitions came from LDOCE users. This result runs counter to MacFarquhar and Richards' (1983) finding about the clarity of LDOCE definitions.

13% ARA said that they had a problem with dictionary syntactic guidance. This result is consistent with the proportion of Arab users of grammar (see question 8). Cross-tabulating this proportion about unsatisfactory grammar with the dictionary in use, it appeared that 33%, 0% and 55% of the respondents ascribed this problem to ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE, respectively. It seems that subjects had no problem with COBUILD grammar. Although the amount of grammar in COBUILD is not as large as that found in any of the other two dictionaries (Lemmens and Wekker, 1991), subjects claimed that COBUILD was quite acceptable. Possibly, this may be because COBUILD codes were found to be clear or because only a handful of subjects used COBUILD.

Other problems mentioned were pronunciation, incomprehensible codes and overlong entries but the proportions were negligible. Possibly, this finding may suggest that ARA did not encounter problems with either pronunciation or excessively long entries (cf. chapter 3). This, however, does not support my suspicion that ARA would have problems with long entries.

28% of Béjoint's subjects suffered from the problem of missing words. Béjoint imputed this problem to the type of word looked up, i.e. technical words, slang words, compounds and Americanisms (see question 16). The number of French subjects who encountered problems with grammar was twice as many as ARA. This again shows how much grammar FRE expected from their MDs. Coincidentally, the same percentage of unsatisfactory definitions was found in both studies. Most studies reviewed in chapter one reported that most subjects complained about definitions. Kipfer (1987), for example, found that definitions intimidated intermediate-level native speakers and deterred them from using dictionaries. The proportions for the other problematic areas, e.g. pronunciations, codes, etc. were only slightly larger than those with ARA.

Question 16: Can you mention any words that you were unable to find in your dictionary?

Only 22% could remember some words they did not find in their MDs. Scrutinising the cited shortcomings, I discovered that these were highly technical or specialised words, e.g. hermeneutic, epistemology, etc.. Béjoint remarked that most French subjects could not recall any word. The examples mentioned were slang, technical, American and compound words.

Question 17: What kinds of words do you look up most often in the dictionary?

57% ARA reported that they looked up culture-specific words most often. This rather high proportion of lexical reference suggests that ARA might experience a problem with understanding some culture-specific words. This can be attributed to the fact that they are mixing and mingling with a different community which exposes them to some areas of difficulty as far as vocabulary is concerned. Idioms and abbreviations were looked up by 43% and 40% ARA, respectively. This, again, assures that dictionaries were mainly used for decoding. 35% and 27% ARA looked for encyclopaedic and slang words, respectively.

Some of Béjoint's findings were similar to the above. 65% FRE claimed that they looked for idioms and 53% looked for culture-specific words. The proportions of French subjects who looked up encyclopaedic words, abbreviation and slang words, 55%, 49% and 40%, respectively, were larger than those of their Arab counterparts.

30% ARA appeared not to refer to common words. Béjoint's proportion was twice as large as ARA. This result contradicts the commonly held belief that this type of word is never looked up (see Sinclair, 1989 for a discussion of this point). A great discrepancy existed between the two studies regarding looking up structural words. Only 8% ARA reported that they did not look up this type of word whereas 47% FRE did not. Again, this contradicts the findings in question 8. To reiterate, FRE claimed that they derived a considerable amount of grammatical information from MDs. 45% ARA and a similar proportion of FRE reported that they never looked up taboo words. Only 46% ARA looked up proper names compared to

62% FRE. It is possible to assert that FRE looked up more proper names than ARA because their type of study encounters large numbers of proper names.

Question 18: Do you make use of the following?

78% ARA indicated that they usually made use of examples and quotations. Béjoint reached nearly the same result, 70%. Synonyms were used by 62% ARA compared to 68% FRE. 38% Arab students claimed that they made use of pictures compared to 24% FRE. The high percentage of example users is not surprising. It could be worthwhile, however, to check how and how successfully EFL learners make use of dictionary examples.

Synonyms were also widely used. Attention should be drawn to the point that both groups claimed that they used synonyms more than they looked them up. Unfortunately, dictionaries do not offer much help as to the usage of synonyms, Jain (1981). Here, the lexicographers' task is twofold. Firstly, they have to meet the learners' need for synonyms. Secondly, they must make EFL learners aware of any restrictions on the use of synonyms. Failure to do so would mean learners' production would remain prone to errors. Although the figure for picture use in this study is higher than Béjoint's, it is still low, for no obvious reason. One expects dictionary users to make a considerable use of pictures in dictionaries. Maybe, some learners' MDs just did not contain pictures, e.g. COBUILD.

Question 19: Under which headword would you look up the following compounds?

A set of eight compounds was given to learners to indicate under which element they would look them up. The results are summarised below. The proportions given refer to the underlined words

expression	Béjoint	this study
artificial insemination	93	64
boil down to	81	92
false alarm	80	62
magnetic tape	79	53
come down with	71	94
lose sight of	65	46
rid of	58	100
fountain pen	58	33

From these variant choices, I can deduce that not only the look-ups of the two samples were different, but also subjects in the same population differed about looking up the same expressions. As for adjective-noun compounds, the difference between the two populations was not great. Seemingly, both populations tended to look up compounds under their main parts cf. Béjoint, 1994). This tendency was much clearer with FRE. There was still some variation in the individuals' look-ups of both populations. Possibly, this means that subjects were inconsistent. These proportions clearly suggest that compounds of the same grammatical status were looked up differently. As to noun-noun compounds, i.e. FOUNTAIN PEN, both populations tended to look them up under the first element, though this was much clearer with ARA. As to verbal compounds, both samples seemed to favour verbs. One bizarre thing was that 42% FRE looked up RID OF under OF.

Regarding the location of these compounds in EFL dictionaries, subjects' look-ups were disappointing. Many ARA and FRE failed to guess the right place for these compounds. Possibly, their look-ups were unplanned. It is likely that L1 interference had affected subjects' look-ups. However, most subjects seemed not to be aware of dictionary policy in entering compounds. To my knowledge, no detailed study has been conducted to discover what affects dictionary user look-ups. Therefore, it is worth doing some research to find out whether some factors, e.g. word frequency might have influenced dictionary user look-up strategies.

Question 20: Do you think your dictionary is too simplified, or on the contrary too detailed?

40% ARA believed that their MDs were too simplified. 32% thought that their dictionaries were too detailed and 28% said that their MDs were just right. Subjects' judgments regarding dictionaries in use were computed. 40%, 60% and 40% of ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE users, respectively, claimed that this dictionary was 'detailed'. 50% of Béjoint's respondents thought that their dictionaries were 'too simplified'. A large discrepancy occurred between the two studies regarding 'too detailed' responses. Only, 5% FRE believed that their MDs were as such. The remaining subjects, 45%, indicated that their MDs were all right. No single justification is ready now to account for this discrepancy but learner misconception of the terms 'simplified' and 'detailed'. Perhaps, the two terms should have been explained.

Question 21: Do you have any other comments on the dictionary you own?

Only a few students provided comments. The following were the most common remarks:

1. Dictionaries have to contain more up-to-date entries (cf. Quirk, 1974).
2. The layout, kind of paper and the size of print were troublesome because of the minute dense text (cf. Neubach and Cohen, 1988 and Battenburg, 1991). Specialists found a great effect of page and letter size on both comprehension and retrieval of printed matters (see Ennis, 1982).
3. Dictionaries should have a thumb index and a running footer to remind users about pronunciation symbols.
4. All entries have to be provided with pronunciation.
5. Dictionaries have to refer users to other sources, e.g. journals, books, etc. for further details if needed.

Apparently, most of these comments are shared in common by most dictionary users.

2.3. Conclusion

On the whole, the results of this study were similar to Béjoint's. Some of the findings, however, did not bear out some of my suppositions made earlier. For example, the results did not support the supposition about MDs ownership since all subjects appeared to possess MDs. Possibly, this was because subjects were studying abroad. As to the aims described above, the results were as follows:

1. Contrary to what has been expected, MDs were not used more for encoding than for decoding. Cowie (1983a:107) claims learners "use their EFL dictionary for interpretive rather than productive purposes". It seems that there is little difference between EFL learners who study abroad and use the foreign language for communication and those who learn it at home. Again, the expectation that some information might be used more often by ARA did not come true. Grammar, for example, was neglected by most users. Only 16% ARA used MDs for grammar. Lemmens and Wekker (1991) suggest that using coloured pages, dictionary-makers can stimulate learners and draw their attention to use grammar components, especially if the explanation is helpful. Although this

sounds like a practical suggestion, the learners' problem could be that they did not know how to use this information.

2. Neither the findings of the present study nor Béjoint's showed that subjects were well acquainted with what existed in MDs. This disagrees with Tomaszczyk's (1979) claim that EFL learners knew all information included in dictionaries and used it to the full. Some information in MDs, e.g. front matters was not exploited as they should be. In fact, the introductory matters are sometimes too long and rather intimidating. This might have deterred EFL learners from reading them thoroughly or even cursorily (cf. Crystal, 1986).

When I compared the results of this replication with Béjoint's, a number of points emerged. My assumption was true regarding 'finding words'. 59% ARA claimed that they encountered the problem of missing words. Also, the supposition about 'looking up compounds' was confirmed. It appeared that many subjects failed to look up compounds correctly because of their faulty strategies. In both cases, the figures obtained did not tally with Béjoint's. However, a rather surprising result was obtained for the learners' difficulty in understanding dictionary definitions. Only 26% ARA claimed that they encountered this problem. Here, my supposition did not come true. Unlike the proportions revealed by most studies into EFL learners' reference needs, the proportion revealed in this study for difficulties with definitions was surprisingly low.

3. Although ARA belonged to different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, their reference needs and recommendations did not appear, on the basis of this study, to be

different from those of French or other dictionary users. As expected, BDs were considered better than MDs by many of ARA. In general, ARA and FRE used MDs similarly.

In summary, the findings about 'words missing', 'compound look-up' and 'unsatisfactory definitions' are worthy of further investigation. The figures obtained for these aspects of dictionary use were different from Béjoint's and sometimes from other studies'. The points to be considered are shown below.

Firstly, question 15 revealed a high percentage of ARA, 59%, facing the problem of missing words compared to 28% FRE. Although similar proportions were found by other researchers (e.g. Kharma, 1985), this finding is surprising. This problem can largely be attributed to subjects' unfamiliarity with the content of MDs, particularly introductory matters (see question 11). However, there may be several possible reasons why ARA experienced this problem. These can include the following:

1. Subjects might have looked up highly technical or specialised terms that did not occur in General MDs. This assumption was supported by the findings from question 16. All the words provided by subjects were specialised and highly infrequent words. This may suggest that many 'missing words' occurred because the words looked up did not exist in subjects' MDs. Possibly, learners were not using the proper dictionaries which could serve their demands well. Prima facie evidence was provided by Aarts (1991). Aarts claimed that whereas 24 words taken from letters A, B and C existed in

COBUILD, only 12 and 5 words existed in ALD and LDOCE, respectively. To be really useful to dictionary users, e.g. ARA, it would be sensible for dictionaries to include a large quantity of technical words. Probably, these subjects needed an LSP dictionary of the type suggested by Moulin (1983) and Diab (1990).

2. Subjects might have meant missing meanings rather than missing words since question 15 did not give them this alternative. Many studies revealed very high figures for missing meanings (e.g. Hartmann, 1983a; Kharma, 1985 and Iqbal, 1987). It is likely that ARA were unable to find some meanings which were there in MDs, especially polysemes. It is worthwhile carrying out a study to ascertain whether ARA had a problem with locating particular meanings in MDs. This factor will be considered in chapter 3. However, in the light of the very low proportion of ARA, i.e. 3%, who claimed that they had problems with long entries, I expect ARA to have little difficulty in finding meanings.

3. It is very unlikely that subjects, at this stage of EFL learning, experience difficulty in finding single words. It is possible, however, that they had a problem with finding compound words. As in question 19, about half of ARA failed to indicate the correct position of compounds in MDs. This problem was prevalent in most other studies (e.g. Sora, 1984; Iqbal, 1987 and Atkins and Knowles, 1990). However, the number of compounds used was not large enough to reflect learners' real behaviour. Therefore, it is worth doing some research to find out whether this variable had contributed to the problem of missing words. This research would help discover learner look-up strategies, if any. Again, this factor will be considered in chapter 3. According to the findings from question 19, I anticipate that ARA would have great difficulty in finding

compound nouns.

Secondly, as shown in Question 19, FRE and ARA were not of one mind with regard to looking up multiword expressions. Prior research (e.g. Sora, 1984; Iqbal, 1987 and Bogaards, 1990) has shown that different populations looked up compounds differently. Several factors might have played a role in the learners' look-ups. However, it was difficult to deduce a clear-cut look-up strategy from this study since the number of compounds used was small. It is, therefore, worthwhile following up this phenomenon to see whether ARA might display any particular behaviour when looking up compounds. This type of research will help unveil any element that had a bearing on user look-up operations. This issue will be partly considered in chapter 3 and is investigated further in chapter 4. I expect ARA look-ups to be affected by their L1 look-up strategies.

Thirdly, it was surprising to find that only 26% of the learners, in both studies, complained about dictionary definitions. Almost all studies into EFL learners' reference needs reported larger proportions of users who were dissatisfied with dictionary definitions (e.g. Iqbal, 1987 and El-Badry, 1990). However, our questions might have been ambiguous. It was possible that subjects had misunderstood them. One drawback of this question, however, was that it did not require informants to define the nature of the problem with definitions. Therefore, it sounds sensible to design some studies to confirm this result, especially as there is little literature, if any, in this area.

Previous research (e.g. Randall, 1990; Al-Hazemi, 1993 and Ryan, 1993) have shown that

ARA had major difficulties with learning English. I, therefore, anticipated that a large proportion of ARA would have some difficulties with handling dictionary explanations. Usually, these difficulties may be attributed to the unclear definitions. In addition, subject misinterpretation and wrong approaches to dictionary explanations may play some role in the unproductive use of dictionaries. This issue will be dealt with in chapter 5 and the other remaining chapters. Such studies may reveal the way ARA handle dictionary information in real-life dictionary use tasks. It may also help pinpoint any type of difficulty faced by ARA in understanding or using this information. I believe that if what causes problems for ARA in dictionary definitions is known, it will be easy to design entries that are problem-free. Consequently, it will be possible to produce dictionaries that meet EFL learners' demands.

The next chapter deals with experimental attempts to investigate the problem of 'missing words', which has been outlined in chapter 1 and is confirmed in this chapter.

Chapter three
Missing words

3.1. Introduction

In chapter 2, I delineated three problematic aspects of dictionary use. The first aspect being 'missing words'; whereby 59% ARA claimed that they searched for words in MDs but could not find them. This problem was attributed to several possible reasons (see chapter 2). Two of the reasons are worth pursuing further. These are as follows.

First, subjects might have encountered 'missing meanings'. It was possible that they were unable to locate some meanings, appropriate to lexemes in context, which were there in MDs. Long entries, i.e. those for polysemous words, where several meanings exist, may pose difficulty for both native and non-native speakers. Actually, long entries were found problematic for EFL learners (Neubach and Cohen, 1988) and native pupils (Mitchell, 1983b). ARA, in particular, may have a problem with polysemous words because they do not regularly use dictionaries in their L1 since they can perfectly deduce most meanings from word roots.

Secondly, subjects might not have found the meaning of some multiword expressions because they had looked them up in the wrong place. In chapter 2, we noticed that ARA failed to carry out successful look-ups. This information may suggest that ARA do not know under which element a multiword expression should be looked up.

This chapter reports two studies into finding the meaning of certain kinds of lexical items in

MDs. The objective of the first study is to find out whether ARA have any difficulty in locating particular senses of multimeaning words. According to findings from prior research, I speculate that ARA might have problems with finding the meanings for which they search in MDs. In the light of the results, some suggestions can be made for the improvement of dictionary entries enabling them to be more effective and more user-friendly. The objective of the second study is to investigate ARA look-ups of multiword expressions. Here, as suggested in chapter 2, I expect ARA to encounter a serious problem with finding the meaning of multiword expressions. The findings may allow us to possibly present a more productive approach to entering compounds in MDs.

Below, I shall describe the two studies in turn, starting with the problem of 'missing meanings'.

3.2. Study one

Fox and Kirby (1987:5) point out that "Finding words in a dictionary can be difficult. Even native speakers sometimes fail to find words that are there". This certainly applies to some meanings of polysemous words where the entry is usually too long to scan and search through. Research into dictionary use (e.g. Hartmann, 1983a; Kharma, 1985; Iqbal, 1987) has discovered that most users at some time did not find the definitions that matched the contexts of their target words. I think that three causes may account for this phenomenon. First, the meanings looked for were really absent. Possibly, these subjects were using shorter dictionaries. Secondly, subjects were unable to locate the meaning appropriate to a particular context, especially with multimeaning words. Finally, dictionary users may not be patient

enough to scan the whole entry. They, therefore, pick out the first meaning presented in the entry and take it for granted as the right meaning, i.e. 'first-thing-you-come-across' approach.

Real-life look-ups of some polysemous words have shown that locating some senses appropriate to context was problematic for EFL learners (cf. Neubach and Cohen, 1988 and Tono, 1989) and for native school children (cf. Mitchell, 1983b; Miller and Gildea, 1987). It was likely that the rather excessive length of entries deterred users from carrying on their search for the right meaning. The worst behaviour exhibited by dictionary users when looking up polysemous words was that some dictionary users tended to accept the first meaning offered by MDs (cf. Mitchell, 1983b; Tono, 1984 and Neubach and Cohen, 1988).

Again, if dictionary users were patient enough to scan all the senses, they might confuse the right sense with a similar one in the same entry. Such problems could be prevalent with ARA and might have accounted for a large part of their difficulty with missing words. Therefore, it is worth doing some detailed research into locating particular meanings of polysemous words in MDs. This may ascertain whether ARA are capable of finding the meanings they want or whether they satisfy themselves with the first meaning they come across.

Although several studies considered the readability and productivity of EFL dictionaries, no full-scale study has been undertaken to investigate this problem with EFL dictionary users. Therefore, this study will address this issue and assess users' success at finding meanings appropriate to context using the entries from two dictionaries.

It is likely that certain defining styles used in dictionaries affect dictionary users' success at locating the meaning they are looking for. LDOCE meanings may be easier to decipher than COBUILD because the former uses a virtually new technique in writing definitions and examples. That is, the Longman Defining Vocabulary which uses a core vocabulary of 2000 words. Subjects may not have problems with comprehending LDOCE definitions and matching them with the 'source context'. A second feature of the LDOCE defining style that makes it superior to COBUILD is that COBUILD has much longer explanations within entries. A third feature is the way LDOCE presents the meanings which may make its explanations more accessible and helpful than COBUILD. LDOCE gives each word class an entry on its own. "Round", for example, has five entries, one for each of its five word classes. COBUILD, however, presents all word classes under one entry but gives each sense a separate paragraph. Tops (1991) perceives this practice as suitable for unsophisticated users from non-Indo-European backgrounds.

3.2.1. The study

3.2.2. Aim

In this study, I intend to consider the following issues:

1. To ascertain whether EFL learners can locate the meaning appropriate to context amid other different meanings in MDs. Since ARA were not dissimilar to other dictionary users, I suspect that they cannot locate certain meanings of some polysemous words in their MDs. Here, I shall try to analyse subject look-up performances and match them with dictionary definitions so that their results can be accounted for.

2. To discover whether the variation in the defining styles of dictionaries affects dictionary users' look-ups. I expect that LDOCE entries may offer more help in meaning disambiguation than COBUILD. There are two reasons which allow me to assume this. Firstly, LDOCE definitions contain a restricted vocabulary to which ARA are possibly familiar. Unlike other dictionaries, this technique, according to the compilers, makes the definitions easier to access and understand. Secondly, LDOCE assembles all senses of each word class together. Unlike, COBUILD, this may ease the search process and exempts users from scrutinising the whole explanation.
3. To ascertain whether something like 'first-thing-you-come-across' approaches account for ARA behaviour. I suspect that long entries may deter ARA from completing their search and possibly encourage them to accept the first meaning offered, as the right one.

These issues will be addressed by providing dictionary users with contextualised common words with a subtle range of meanings in MDs. Users will be assigned the task of finding the meaning suitable to context. To assess dictionary definition effectiveness, two dictionaries will be used. Subjects' correct answers will be computed and their behaviour will be examined in relation to the corresponding dictionary definitions. The number of incorrect look-ups performed by subjects will reflect the volume of the problem ARA have with locating meaning in MDs.

3.2.3. Materials

Stimuli were 20 polysemous words, i.e. words with a subtle range of meanings, used in 20

sentences. The original words were selected from Thorndike and Lorge's (1944) most frequent words. The latter are words belonging to AA or A categories (words occurring 50 times or more per million in Thorndike-Lorge's corpus). Being common words, this means that they were polysemous or homonymous, e.g. *fast, long, hand*, etc.. However, the lexemes used in the sentences were infrequent senses. I assumed that Arab learners were not acquainted with these meanings. In, *long*, for instance, the sense used was "want something very much" rather than the common sense "measuring distance from one end to the other".

A full dictionary explanation of the target word followed each sentence. The shortest entry used contained six different senses in both COBUILD and LDOCE. (It was difficult to find words that had an equal number of meanings in both dictionaries). Mostly, COBUILD entries tended to be longer as to the number of senses and amount of explanation. The meanings in question were placed in different positions within the entry, mostly towards the end. These ranged from sense No.4 to sense No.22, depending on the length of the entry. This means that no single target meaning resided among the first three meanings in any entry.

The reason for choosing polysemes was that I wanted to find out how ARA carry out their task with words that possess long entries in MDs. I assumed that short entries would not pose any kind of difficulty regarding locating meanings wanted. Indeed, polysemous words have been acknowledged as enigmatic for EFL learners (see Cowie, 1979). Also, long entries usually pose problems for EFL learners and discourage them from carrying on reading the explanation (Moulin, 1979). Since subjects knew at least one frequent meaning of the target word, I expected them to opt for the first meaning they came across, i.e. the one they knew,

'first-thing-you-come-across' approach.

Two test forms were designed- one for COBUILD definitions and the other for LDOCE. Each form contained the same 20 test words underlined and used in sentences. A native speaker wrote the sentences in a way that made it difficult for subjects to infer the exact meaning from context. Underneath each sentence, there was a full dictionary explanation of the meaning of the word in question. The dictionary explanation was presented exactly as appeared in the source dictionary. (In two cases, the explanation was too long to include on one sheet of paper so some of the redundant parts were removed).

The subjects' task was to determine the meaning of the word presented in context. They had to identify the meaning of the underlined word in the definition and write its number in the box designed for this purpose. I renumbered LDOCE definitions manually for ease of marking. A complete reference of the materials used is presented in appendixes 2.1 and 2.2.

3.2.4. Subjects

40 ARA took part in this experiment. All were students of British universities; mostly postgraduates. They were randomly divided into two groups. Each group worked with definitions from either COBUILD or LDOCE. Meara's (1992a) vocabulary tests were used to assess subject vocabulary knowledge and to select homogeneous and able groups. The subjects took test (319). The range of ability level was the same for the two groups. The score of COBUILD users, COB, N=18, was (82.8 out of 100, Sd 8.6) compared to (84.6 out of 100, Sd 8.7) for LDOCE users, LDO, N=22. A t-test demonstrated no significant

difference between the scores of the two groups (t=.59, p<.560 with 38 df).

3.2.5. Procedure

Instructions and examples were presented on the cover pages of the test forms in both English and Arabic. Subjects were instructed to read the definition and decide which meaning fitted the underlined word in the sentence. They were tested individually. For practical reasons, the time taken to perform the task was not recorded.

Regarding the first issue, the total number of dictionary look-ups was computed. 792 look-up operations were performed. (It happened that in 8 cases no answer was provided). COBUILD users carried out 355 look-ups (five responses were missing). LDOCE users carried out 437 look-ups (three cases were missing).

To determine how successful subjects were at locating the right meanings, their mean scores for the correct responses were computed (see appendix 10). I obtained two scores, one for COB and the other for LDO. These scores were the percent correct. Each correct answer was awarded one point. An answer was considered correct if the number given would correspond with the actual meaning of the lexeme in question.

The mean scores were submitted to a t-test to discover whether there existed any significant difference between the help offered by the two dictionaries.

With regard to the third issue concerning the 'first-thing-you-come-across' approach, I

calculated the number of cases where subjects were satisfied with the first meaning offered, i.e. the most frequent. I scrutinised subjects' responses, in cases where they accepted the first, second or third meaning offered in MDs as the right meaning of the target word. The scores obtained are presented in the next section.

3.2.6. Results

This study was set up to provide answers to consider three issues. First, whether ARA could find the meanings appropriate to certain polysemous words in context. Contrary to my speculation, the mean scores in table 3.1 show that subjects were often, i.e. 80%, able to find the meaning of the target words. Evidently, ARA had only a slight difficulty with finding the meanings they wanted in MDs.

Table 3.1. Mean score for correct look-ups (max.20)

	COB	LDO
Mean	17.1	14.7
Sd	2.3	3.1

To find an answer to the second issue, whether dictionaries affect students' success at finding the meanings wanted, I submitted the above scores to a t-test. A significant difference was demonstrated between the two scores ($t=2.71$, $p<0.01$ with 38 df). This difference is apparently due to COB who obtained a better score than LDO. This means that dictionaries vary in the amount of help they offer to users when looking up the meanings of certain lexemes. This result disagrees with my expectation that LDO would do better than COB. It appears that COBUILD definitions were more accessible and easier to locate than LDOCE. This confirms the COBUILD-compilers' claim that COBUILD definitions promote skills of

language production and comprehension (Sinclair, 1987c).

The last issue concerned subject satisfaction with the first meaning they came across. The scrutiny of the answers showed that the number of cases where subjects accepted the first meaning offered by the dictionary was negligible, 9 cases, i.e. 1% of the total look-ups. This indicates that the 'first-thing-you-come-across' approach could hardly exist with ARA, at least at this language level (see discussion below).

Clearly, the above results show that ARA do not face a serious problem with finding the meanings they look for in MDs. Their scores are far from random. These scores show a deliberate intention in selections. Most individuals got at least 80% of their look-ups correct. However, it happened that three subjects misidentified the meaning of more than half of the stimulus words. It seemed that these subjects confused the right numbers that referred to the target meanings.

3.2.7. Discussion

The principal question addressed in this study was whether EFL learners were able to identify the right meaning among others in a certain entry on the basis of 'source text'. The ARA overall mean score for locating meanings on the basis of contextual information was good enough to rule out my supposition. The suspicion that ARA might have a great problem with finding certain meanings was rather unfounded, at least at this level of proficiency. There was no evidence to indicate that ARA answers were hit-or-miss. As stated above, most testees got 80% of their answers correct. Getting such scores by pure chance or guesswork is

a very remote possibility. It appears that subjects' sensitivity to context was sufficient to allow them to locate the right meaning. As explained below, the few cases misidentified, occurred because of two possible causes: (a) subjects' false assumptions about meanings and (b) dictionary explanation being obscure.

Table 3.1 showed that COB produced a higher score than LDO. Although COBUILD did not use a restricted defining vocabulary, it helped ARA locate the definitions and decipher the difficult meanings better than LDOCE. Probably, COBUILD 'sentence-like-definitions' are more productive than LDOCE phrasal definitions which use a restricted vocabulary, especially at decoding the meanings of certain words in context. Unlike LDOCE, COBUILD explanations illustrate the word in its typical grammatical context. Again, it is likely that entry layout in COBUILD has played a part in making the information targeted more accessible than that of LDOCE. It appears that the COBUILD-compilers' claim that "This dictionary follows a simple principle of trying to make it easy for users to find what they want" (introduction:xix), is true. COBUILD was very much praised for its definitions and entry layout by teachers and lexicographers alike (cf. Tadros, 1987; West, 1987; Carney, 1988; Stock, 1988; Zgusta, 1988; Carter, 1989a and 1989b; Hausmann and Gorbahn, 1989 and Béjoint, 1994).

Mention should be made of the fact that unlike LDOCE, COBUILD gives each sense a separate paragraph rather than muddling all senses under one headword. The supposition that LDOCE entries which assembles the senses of each word class under a separate headword are more helpful than placing them with the senses of other word classes has not been confirmed.

This finding may be interesting for lexicographers who might follow COBUILD techniques. Also, it may be interesting for teachers since it shows which dictionary is best for decoding.

Again, my supposition regarding the third aim was not confirmed. The close examination of subject incorrect answers showed no trace of the 'first-thing-you-come-across' approach reported in Mitchell (1983b) and Tono (1984). It was evident from the responses that subjects were more deliberate, despite the length of the entry. Only nine out of 792 look-ups showed that subjects picked out the first meaning in the entry. However, four of these cases corresponded to one word, i.e. *hole*, which would indicate that subjects might have mistaken this meaning for the correct answer.

This finding seems to indicate that the difference between the position of the target meaning in the different entries in both dictionaries does not affect subjects' look-ups. An interesting piece of evidence that emerged from subject searches for meaning substantiates this claim; that is, the way some subjects went about their task. Having had the chance of watching some subjects' performance (unfortunately, it was impossible to gather 'think-aloud protocols'), I noticed that some of them had no idea about how MDs enter meaning. In many cases, nobody seemed to recognise that LDOCE had divided the entries on syntactic grounds. Needless to say, it did not occur to any subject that the order of senses was based on their common usage. Looking for **long**^{4} *v* (want something very much) in LDOCE, subjects started at **long**^{1} *adj* and went on searching through the 18 senses listed until they spotted what they wanted. It is possible to argue that the more mature dictionary users are the more determined they are to search. Possibly, I was wrong to hypothesize that Arab learners had a serious

difficulty with locating the meanings wanted.

Obviously, subjects were not fully aware of the structure of dictionary entries. Such knowledge is a prerequisite of a successful timesaving look-up. To some extent, this suggests the ineffectiveness of classifying meanings according to word class. I found users tended to search for word meaning in sequence. It would make more sense and could be more rewarding if word meanings were arranged on a frequency basis. It is relevant to mention that COBUILD, wherever possible, gives the commonest sense first.

One may raise the question of why ARA were unable to locate the meanings of some words. The answer, I believe, is relatively obvious. As noted above, two reasons can account for this. Firstly, for particular words, subjects seemed to ignore the part of speech of the meaning located. They extracted the correct semantic information from the definition but they did not bother with the precise grammatical function of the target word. Subjects seemed to stop their search at the first meaning which seemed suitable to context, although it corresponded to a different word class. For example, in the source text, *bob* was used as a verb, but many subjects opted for the number of the paragraph that contained the meaning of *bob n* that preceded *bob v*. Around 22% COB gave the number that corresponded to *bob n*. The same applies to words like *net, will*, etc.. Although LDOCE gives a separate entry for each word class, this did not deter some LDO from behaving like their counterparts.

It is possible that this phenomenon occurred because ARA were unaware of the fact that the meaning of the verb was different from that of the noun although semantically similar.

Experience has shown that some EFL learners had acquired a bad habit about using English words. When asked to use a word such as a noun in a sentence, these learners use any of its derivatives instead, as if it was the target word. The former phenomenon may be an indication that some learners do not read the entry as a whole. Possibly, there is a room for argument that an appropriate look-up technique was involved here. Users extracted appropriate semantic information and arrived at appropriate conclusions for the meaning of the target word. If the misidentifications were reclassified as correct, the correct look-up figure would become 83%.

Secondly, it was possible that some definitions were not clear enough to help subjects discriminate between similar meanings in the same entry. This reason, however, accounts for the other subjects' meaning misidentifications. It was possible that subjects had difficulty formulating correct hypothesis about the meaning of particular words. This in turn led to a faulty search and consequently faulty conclusions. Neubach and Cohen (1988) discovered similar cases. Words that lent themselves to incorrect answers of this type were: *blind, fast, hand, net, turn* and *wind*. The problem with such words was that their definitions ran into one another. In other words, some definitions in the same entry were similar. Table 3.2 below draws a comparison between the proportions of subjects' unsuccessful look-ups concerning the problematic words.

Table3.2. % of incorrect meaning identification of some individual words related to dictionaries

	blind	fast	hand	net	turn	wind
COB	11	28	28	39	33	06
LDO	59	64	59	18	73	55

A t-test showed that there was a significant dictionary effect for *blind* (t=3.49, p<.001 with 38 df); wind (t=3.76, p<.001 with 38 df); *hand* (t=3.44, p<.019 with 38 df) and *turn* and *fast* (t=3.36, p<.024 with 38 df). Apparently, this difference was because COB did better than LDO. It is likely that the definitions of these lexical items were much clearer for the users in COBUILD than in LDOCE. The difference was not significant for *net* (t=1.43, p<.152).

The following example may illustrate how the above words were problematic. In LDOCE, sense 5 in **turn**[2] *n* reads:

> a change from an existing situation or condition: new development: I'm afraid she's taken a turn for the worse. (= has become more ill)...;

whereas sense 8, the one in question, reads:

> ...a sudden attack of illness: She's had one of her funny turns again

and finally sense 9 is:

> a good/bad turn an action that has a good or helpful/bad or unhelpful effect on someone...

The difference between these explanations is more subtle than an ordinary dictionary user can observe. Only the shrewd and wary user could probably tell which of these senses was appropriate for *turn* in "After dinner, the duchess had a bad turn". The word *Fast* was not only problematic for ARA, but also for some native speakers. Given the source text and

dictionary explanation of *fast*, three out of four EFL teachers provided wrong answers. Almost no difference appeared to exist between *fast adj* and *fast adv* in both dictionaries. In brief, the misunderstanding of some words arose because dictionaries did not make clear the difference between related meanings of certain target words. Perhaps, if these definitions were clearer, it would be very likely that the look-up operations would be more rewarding.

In conclusion, this study has concerned itself with establishing whether EFL learners can locate the meaning appropriate to a particular word in context. The results have shown that finding the exact meaning to words in context is sometimes problematic for ARA. However, this problem was not as serious as I suspected. Subjects failed to find the meanings they searched for only in about 20% of the cases. Sometimes, this occurred because some definitions were so obscure that subjects could not comprehend them. Therefore, this problem can possibly be solved by making these meanings clearer and more accessible. However, it is interesting to conduct a study to find out how ARA can handle the meanings they found and use them for production. This issue is considered in chapter 5.

The second issue investigated in this study was whether different dictionary definitions have a bearing on dictionary users' success at finding the meanings wanted. It appeared that the new defining style of COBUILD was more effective than LDOCE in helping dictionary users select certain words in context. To some extent, this may suggest the ineffectiveness of 'restricted vocabulary'. However, it happened that particular entries were problematic. This encourages me to suggest that alternative definitions are better suited to help EFL learners. Such steps will be undertaken in chapter 7.

In addition, this study has attempted to discover whether EFL learners would be satisfied with the first meaning offered by the dictionary. It appeared that subjects were not random in their answers and approaches to the task. They appeared to persistently search through the explanation until they found what could satisfactorily explain the meaning of the word in context. The evidence gathered from the first and last questions suggests that ARA had no trouble with long entries. This encourages dictionary-makers to present all meanings that EFL learners need, so that the latter will not complain about their MDs.

Observing subject performance, I discovered some problems about users' look-up strategies. Some subjects, for instance, appeared to lack knowledge on how dictionary entries were structured. Such knowledge is in fact indispensable for a successful timesaving look-up. Thus, to overcome the problem of inadequate search, dictionary users should be trained in dictionary use. To be a successful dictionary user, one has to improve his skills with practice. Herbst and Stein (1987:115) point out that using EFL dictionaries successfully and effectively "presupposes a specific competence of the wide range of information they contain". To this, I add knowledge of the way this information is recorded. Furthermore, dictionary users have to discern the structure of dictionary entries since "finding a particular entry with any degree of competence depends on understanding the structure of the dictionary" (Mitchell, 1983a:16).

In the above study, it was discovered that ARA had a slight problem with finding certain meanings of polysemous words. This finding can partly account for ARA problems with 'missing words'. To find out what else could have caused this problem, I conducted 'study two which is described below.

3.3. Study two

In chapter 2, I suggested that ARA problems with missing words were twofold. Firstly, their difficulty in finding particular meanings of some polysemes and, secondly, looking up multiword expressions in the wrong place. The previous study considered the former and found that ARA had only slight difficulty with finding particular meanings in MDs. The present study will consider the issue of EFL learners' look-ups of multiword units.

Finding multiword expressions in dictionaries is not as easy as one imagines. Dictionary users are not always of one mind about which item to look up. Possibly, this is for two reasons: (a) the lack of a unified method of entering expressions in dictionaries and (b) user ignorance of EFL dictionaries' policies in entering expressions. This is particularly true where compounds are relatively rare in the L1 of many dictionary users, e.g. Arabic. The dictionary users face a quandary, whether they use the first element, the second or even the third. Likewise, whether it is the noun, the adjective or perhaps the verb under which the meaning may be found. Perhaps, the expression is present under all of these. There is also the problem of an expression which has more than one noun or verb. Obviously, entering multiword lexical items in dictionaries is an open-ended issue.

In this study, I shall shed some light on how multiword expressions are looked up and find out whether ARA can look up these expressions successfully. I will also attempt to unveil ARA look-up strategies, if any. According to findings in chapter 2, I anticipate that ARA would fail to find a large number of the multiword units for which they search. This is

primarily because of subject ignorance of the placement of compounds in dictionaries. This ignorance manifests itself in adopting faulty strategies. These include, concentrating on the main element, the meaning of the expression or on word frequency.

3.3.1. Aim

This study addresses the following questions:

1. Can ARA look up multiword expressions correctly? If subjects looked up more than 80% of the expressions correctly, one can contend that ARA had very little difficulty in finding compounds in MDs. With reference to chapter 2, I expect that ARA will fail to find many expressions they look up in their MDs. This, in the first place, is attributed to their ignorance of the placement of compounds in MDs. In turn, this ignorance encourages them to apply their own look-up strategies, which may be unproductive. I would expect those subjects who had proper tuition in dictionary use to be skilful users.
2. What are the strategies ARA use when they look up multiword expressions? I expect ARA look-ups not to be similar to other EFL learners'. The way these expressions are entered in ARA L1 dictionaries may influence their look-up strategies. Therefore, I expect the English expressions of the type adjective-noun to be looked up under the second element, since the equivalent translations of these usually reside under the second element in Arabic dictionaries. However, I expect expressions of the type noun-noun to be looked up under the first element, since the equivalent translations of these in Arabic dictionaries usually exist under the first element.

To answer these questions, some dictionary users will look up a list of multiword expressions. The results are dealt with in the next sections. The second aim, however, requires further investigation and will be tackled again in chapter 4.

3.3.2. Materials

Stimuli were a set of two-word combinations. These were 'lexical collocations', as opposed to 'grammatical collocations', in the sense defined by (Benson, 1985b and 1989b and Bahns, 1993). Such collocations are referred to differently by several scholars. Some scholars call them 'fixed' or 'recurrent' combinations (BBI:ix); others call them 'settled' combinations (Cowie, 1986). More recently, Verstraten (1991) called these 'fixed collocations', an expression that consists of two or more stable words and always retains its 'internal stability', i.e. no word can go between its two parts.

A set of 36 nominal compounds of the type described above were used (see appendix 3). About half of them were of the type noun-noun (NN), e.g. *brain washing*; the rest were of the type adjective-noun (AN), e.g. *early bird*. Two pairs of the expressions had the first element in common to establish the consistency of subject look-up. The subjects' task was to say where they would expect to find the meaning of the expressions in MDs. In addition, subjects were required to indicate whether they were taught how to use dictionaries. Possibly, the results obtained from this question may show whether tuition in dictionary use had a bearing on users. To avoid any unwanted ordering effects, the items of the two types were randomly arranged. No capitals were used.

3.3.3. Subjects

62 subjects of three different linguistic backgrounds participated in this study. The experimental group, ARA, was 22 students of British Universities. The control group comprised subjects from two populations: Malaysian learners of English (From now on, MAL) and native speakers of English (hereafter, ENG). The Malaysians were 18 postgraduates at Swansea University. The native speakers were 20 EFL teachers from all over Britain.

To choose homogeneous and able groups, ARA and MAL language levels were compared on Meara's (1992a) vocabulary test (311). The scores achieved by the two groups are presented in table 3.3 below. The vocabulary skills of the two groups appear to be identical at this level.

Table 3.3. Ss vocabulary scores (max. 100)

	ARA	MAL
Mean	82.7	82.7
Sd	6.8	8.4

3.3.4. Procedure

Instructions were written in English on the test sheet. Subjects were instructed to indicate under which element they would look up the expressions in a dictionary. They put [1] or [2] in the box beside the expression according to whether they would look up the first or second element. Subjects also indicated whether they were taught how to use a dictionary. They were tested in small groups in the presence of the researcher.

Six expressions were excluded before data analysis as they were considered one-word expressions by most dictionaries. This meant that only the data from 30 expressions were analysed. The placement of these expressions was checked in the three EFL dictionaries. In such dictionaries, the writers' practice was to place these expressions under the first element. The mean scores for correct look-ups were obtained. Each correct answer was awarded one point. An answer was considered correct if it corresponded with the location of the meaning of the expression in EFL dictionaries.

To study the relationship between success at looking up multiword expressions and training in dictionary use, subjects were divided into two groups: higher scorers (those who scored 22 and above) and lower scorers. The number of those who said that they received training in dictionary use was obtained in both cases. The results are presented in the next section.

As to subject look-up strategies, I carried out a close examination of the data to determine whether subjects pursued any look-up strategy. I distinguished between subjects' look-ups of NN and AN expressions. For each type of item, I computed the number of times subjects chose to look up the expressions under the first and second elements. This would help us discover which element was favoured in each case and consequently reveal the strategy pursued. Subjects' scores are shown below.

3.3.5. Results

This study attempted to provide an answer to two questions. First, whether ARA could look up nominal compounds correctly. Table 3.4 summarises the mean scores for subjects' correct

preferences. The figures show the mean number of times subjects said that they would find the meaning of the expressions under the first element of the pair. As I suspected, ARA failed to look up more than half of the stimuli correctly. Actually, they did not do better than chance level.

Table 3.4. Mean score for correct preferences (max.30)

	ARA	ENG	MAL
Mean	13.1	13.6	9.9
Sd	5.2	3.7	3.9

These data were submitted to a one-way ANOVA, in which the main effect was GROUP. The result showed a significant group effect [$F(2,59) = 5.748$, $p<.01$]. Inspection of the data revealed that this effect was due to MAL who scored lower than the other two groups. However, there was no difference between ARA and ENG.

The results of the question about tuition in dictionary use are presented below (higher scorers were those who scored 22 and above out of 30). Table 3.5 shows that only seven ARA said that they were taught how to use dictionaries. It happened that none of these were higher scorers. All higher scorers, five subjects, did not indicate that they had received any training in dictionary use.

Table 3.5. Number of trained and non-trained subjects related to success at finding multiword expressions.

	trained	not trained
higher scorers	0	5
lower scorer	7	12

Apparently, most learners are lower scorers; higher scorers are found only among the untrained. It is possible that the trained learners were not taught how to look up multiword expressions or they might have received training in using BDs.

The second question concerned dictionary users' look-up strategies of multiword expressions. Examination of the data showed that two types of behaviour were exhibited. Tables 3.6 and 3.7 below illustrate the way AN and NN expressions were looked up. The figures show the number of times AN and NN expressions were looked up under the noun and first noun, respectively. Clearly, the results in table 3.7 suggest that AN expressions were mostly looked up under the noun. However, NN look-ups seem not to be systematic. Apparently, there seemed to be no difference between ARA and English look-ups. MAL look-up operations were different from the other two groups'.

Table 3.6. Number of times AN expressions were looked up under the noun

	ARA	ENG	MAL
AN	84%	74%	70%

Table 3.7. Number of times NN expressions were looked up under the first noun

	ARA	ENG	MAL
NN	66.3%	66.4%	44.8%

The above results show that ARA and the other two groups were frequently unable to find the meaning of the expressions. This means that looking up compounds was problematic for all groups. Training in dictionary use appeared non-effective as far as looking up multiword expressions correctly was concerned. With regard to dictionary user look-up strategies, it

seems that most users favoured the noun in AN expressions. NN expressions seem to be looked up under the first element, but this was not always true.

Below, I shall discuss what might have caused dictionary users' problems with multiword expressions and describe in some detail the look-up strategies pursued. My discussion will be confined to ARA, unless otherwise indicated.

3.3.6. Discussion

From a quick look at table 3.4, one can easily conclude that ARA did not do well in looking up compounds. Subjects failed to look up more than half of the expressions correctly. This result tallies with that obtained in chapter 2 and supports my expectation that ARA would have problems. However, this problem was not ARA-exclusive. Apparently, ENG and MAL encountered similar difficulties. Such a finding was very much anticipated since chapter 1 showed that most dictionary users looked up compounds at different places from where these resided in MDs. However, I expected that there would be a relationship between ARA scores and any training they had received in dictionary use. Table 4.5 did not suggest that there existed any association between success at multiword expression look-ups and receipt of training in dictionary use.

The findings from the above question may account for a large part of ARA problems with missing words addressed in this chapter. As appears above, the problem of looking up multiword expressions in the wrong place is shared in common among EFL dictionary users. This suggests that an urgent solution has to be found for this problem. (This issue will be

discussed in chapter 4).

Examining subject responses, I noticed that ARA tended to look up AN expressions under the noun and to some extent (see below) NN expressions under the first noun. This tendency might be shared in common among EFL learners. For example, Iqbal's (1987) findings were essentially similar to the present findings. His subjects tended to prefer looking up AN and NN expressions under the noun and the first noun, respectively. It should be stated, however, that the findings of some researchers might be misleading since these mostly emerged from one or two-example questions. It was possible that if complete studies were conducted, different results would be obtained.

The result in table 3.6 confirms my suspicion about ARA look-ups of AN expressions. Mostly, the expressions were systematically looked up under the noun, especially by ARA. *Golden jubilee* and *public prosecutor*, for example, were looked up under the noun by around 83% and 87% ARA, respectively. This behaviour reminds us of that of Italian learners of English (Sora, 1984) who consistently looked up AN expressions under the second element. Although it was more apparent with ARA, this behaviour was exhibited by all three groups. As shown in their scores, MAL and ENG were slightly less consistent than ARA. Here, I can mention one piece of evidence that showed ARA consistency in looking up AN expressions. Two pairs of AN expressions, i.e. *open house/open secret* and *public prosecutor/public sector*, were intentionally included to consider the way subjects handled them, since each pair shared a word in common. I believed that if subjects' preferences for these 'anchor' expressions varied widely, this would mean that subjects were answering haphazardly.

Analysing the answers, it appeared that ARA were much more consistent than the other two groups. For example, only 20% ARA chose to look up *open house/open secret* under two different places compared to nearly 40% and 55% MAL and ENG, respectively.

The most likely factor that can account for ARA, and possibly other groups', behaviour regarding the look-ups of AN expressions is their focus on the 'main' word. Again, it appears that this tendency is shared in common with most EFL learners (e.g. Béjoint, 1981; Sora, 1984 and Iqbal, 1987). Béjoint (1994:161) argues that "Dictionary users do seem to expect all multiword units to have one element that is more important than the others". Possibly, this was because subjects' L1 dictionaries entered AN compounds under the main element, i.e. the noun. Arabic dictionaries, although they seldom include compounds, share this feature with other dictionaries and enter AN expressions under the noun. However, I could trace some translation equivalents of the present stimuli in Al-Mawrid (1988)- an Arabic-English dictionary. *Wathb Taweel* (long jump), for example, is entered under the noun *wathb* (jump). The idea here is that many adjectives can sometimes collocate with the noun which remains fixed, but the modifier, i.e. adjective, is changeable. These modifiers are considered to be attributes of the main noun and therefore all the expressions that contain the noun, e.g. "high jump", "triple jump", etc. are placed alphabetically at the entry for the noun. Such a policy is backed up by many scholars (e.g. Kipfer, 1984b; Benson, 1985a; Hausmann, 1985 and Carter, 1987). Basically, these scholars have suggested the placement of multiword lexical items under the 'base', to use Hausmann's (1985) terminology, i.e. the noun. As is clear now, ARA look-ups of AN expressions are very likely to be affected by the policies of their L1 dictionaries.

In short, ARA tended to look up AN expressions under the noun. This tendency may be due to their concentration on the main element- a policy adopted in their L1 dictionaries. As mentioned above, interference from mother tongue in the look-ups of AN expressions was also found with French and Italian learners of English (see Béjoint, 1981 and Sora, 1984, respectively). This raises the question of why dictionary-compilers do not take account of EFL dictionary users' look-up behaviour. The answer will be provided in chapter 4. I now propose to examine ARA behaviour with NN expressions.

At first sight, table 3.7 shows that subjects tended to look up NN expressions under the first noun. This confirms my expectation that in the case of compounds, dictionary users "take the first element as an independent word..." (Bolinger, 1990:137) and look it up there. It is likely that the overall proportion disguises the actual behaviour of subjects. A thorough inspection of the look-ups showed that subjects were not systematically looking up the expressions under the first element. As appears in table 3.8, the proportion for first element look-ups varied from one expression to another. No single expression was looked up under the first element by all groups or by all subjects in each sample. Therefore, not only subjects' look-ups, as a group were sometimes random, but individual look-ups were also arbitrary.

Table 3.8. % of subjects' look-ups of NN compounds under the first noun

	ARA	ENG	MAL
brain washing	91.7	90.0	55.6
queen mother	91.7	90.0	72.2
home help	87.5	40.0	38.9
labour day	87.5	85.0	77.8
quotation marks	87.5	90.0	77.2
record player	79.2	90.0	66.7
casualty department	70.8	75.0	55.6
science park	62.5	45.0	33.3
jet engine	58.3	90.0	27.8
chain reaction	54.2	30.0	05.6
service charge	50.0	70.0	50.0
monkey wrench	45.8	20.0	05.6
tea break	45.8	60.0	27.8
sign language	25.0	55.0	27.8

It is also possible that the overall proportion in table 3.7 disguises individual performance. Some individual subjects may be consistently choosing to look up either the first element (FE), only or the second element (SE), only. This would be disguised by the overall figures. Looking closely at subject look-ups, it appeared that no single subject was looking up all NN expressions under the first element. Table 3.9 below validates this claim.

Table 3.9. No. of first element preferences in NN expressions relating to individual subjects (max.15)

	ARA	ENG	MAL
S1	13	12	10
S2	12	12	9
S3	12	11	9
S4	12	11	8
S5	11	11	8
S6	11	10	8
S7	11	10	8
S8	11	10	7
S9	11	10	7
S10	11	10	7
S11	10	10	7
S12	10	9	6
S13	9	9	5
S14	9	9	5
S15	9	9	4
S16	9	9	2
S17	8	8	2
S18	7	8	1
S19	7	5	
S20	7	3	
S21	6		
S22	6		
S23	6		
S24	5		

Superficially, it seems that many ARA and ENG tended to look up most of the expressions under the first element. If we assume that looking up more than 80% of the expressions under the first element represents a systematic look-up strategy, we find that only 16.6% ARA and 10% ENG fall under this classification. These proportions are not high enough to allow us to distinguish between two types of subjects within each sample. None of MAL, however, appeared to look up 80% of the expressions under the first element. They seem to be similar to Italian learners of English who looked up NN expressions under the second element (Sora, 1984). According to the above assumption, the look-ups of 83.3% ARA, 85%

ENG and 78% MAL were unsystematic. Their first element look-ups ranged between 20% and 70% of the expressions. Table 3.9 shows that 1 native speaker and 4 Malaysians favoured looking up more than 75% of the expressions under the second element. This means that the preponderant group in all three samples was that of inconsistent subjects. Subject behaviour does not in any way suggest any systematic look-up strategy either by individual subjects or by groups.

It was difficult to speculate about the reasons for the occurrence of such rather odd behaviour. Probable interference from L1 look-up strategies of NN compounds was hard to spot here. NN expressions are entered in AL-Mawrid under the second element of the Arabic compound which accounts for the first element in the English equivalent expression. It is not irrelevant to mention that word order in Arabic is different from English. Therefore, if ARA looked up NN expressions with L1 look-up strategies in mind, they would opt for the first element in the English expressions. For example, *ghaseel dimagh* (brain washing) is placed under *dimagh* (brain). Possibly, in line with this policy, expressions like *brain washing* and *home help* were looked under *brain* and *home* by about 91.7% and 87.5% ARA, respectively. However, this case did not apply to all expressions. Subjects appeared to ignore this rule and opted for the second noun in some other expressions. 75% ARA, for example, opted for *language* in *sign language*.

In essence, it seems possible that ARA look-ups of NN compounds were more hit-or-miss than being affected by L1 look-up strategies. However, one factor could have accounted for ARA behaviour. Subjects' look-ups might have been affected by word frequency. This

variable was found to affect some dictionary users' look-ups (Bogaards, 1990, 1991a and 1992a). However, it is difficult to account for this factor in this study because I did not control the 'frequency' of the stimuli. Consequently, it is worth conducting some research to find out whether word frequency had any role in dictionary user look-ups. This issue will be considered in chapter 4.

To summarise, our discussions up to now have shown that ARA had not succeeded in looking up compounds correctly. One apparent reason accounts for this failure. That is, subject ignorance of the placement of compounds in EFL dictionaries. However, it is possible that Arabic dictionary policy in entering AN compounds deflected ARA from doing well with AN expressions. As for NN expressions, subjects did not manifest any clear-cut pattern of behaviour. It seemed that they were looking up the items haphazardly. It is likely, however, that all the stimuli were looked up on a word frequency basis. I shall now move to comment on the performance of the other two groups.

Regarding MAL look-ups, subjects seemed to behave in a similar way to ARA in respect of AN expressions. Subject look-ups of NN compounds were hit-or-miss. In common with ARA, MAL did not seem to manifest any obvious pattern of behaviour. Evidently, subjects' look-ups were less systematic than those of the other two groups (see table 3.7). Unfortunately, I could not account for MAL look-up operations with regard to L1 interference since my knowledge is limited in this respect. Again, MAL look-up operations might have been affected by word frequency.

Broadly speaking, ENG behaviour was not dissimilar to that of non-natives, ARA and MAL. This is not surprising. In chapter 1, we saw that native speakers' reference needs and skills were not unlike those of non-natives. Like ARA and MAL, ENG tended to opt for the noun in AN expressions. For example, 100% ENG indicated that they would look up *golden jubilee* and *public prosecutor* under the second element. However, I spotted some cases where some ENG did not consistently opt for the noun. For instance, 80% ENG opted for *green* in *green party*. Possibly, they thought that the political metaphor was more related to *green* than to *party*. It is also likely that they considered *green* a noun rather than adjective. As to NN expressions, the same kind of inconsistency exhibited by ARA and MAL was manifested by ENG.

One may argue that ENG low scores for correct look-ups was due to the policies adopted in entering compounds in native-speakers' dictionaries. To verify this claim, I checked some general native dictionaries: Longman Dictionary of English Language (LDEL) and Collins English Dictionary (CED). All these were in tune with EFL dictionaries as long as the expressions existed. However, it happened that the New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (NSOED) was sometimes different. *Public prosecutor*, for instance, was entered at *prosecutor*, i.e. the noun. We have just seen that natives looked up this expression under *prosecutor*. This may lead us to contend that it was possible that ENG were accustomed to NSOED policy in entering compounds as they regard it as an authoritative book in English. It is also likely that they opted for the least frequent element. For instance, *public prosecutor* was looked by all ENG under the second element because it was the least frequent item. I shall be investigating this in chapter 4.

In short, like ARA, ENG and MAL failed to look up all the expressions correctly. Clearly, all groups tended to look up AN expressions under the noun. However, subject behaviour was more unpredictable regarding NN expressions. Such inconsistency is almost inherent in dictionary users' look-ups.

To conclude, this study attempted to find out how good were dictionary users at finding multiword expressions in their MDs. The results showed that ARA, MAL and ENG, had a great problem with finding such lexical items in MDs. These items were mostly looked up in the wrong place. I attributed this to subject ignorance of dictionary policy in placing compounds. As far as ARA were concerned, interference from L1 strategies might have influenced their look-ups of AN compounds. This effect was not clear in NN expressions. However, It was possible that word frequency had an immediate impact on subject look-ups. This might have been the direct cause which deflected them from looking up the expressions correctly.

3.4. Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to investigate the difficulty that ARA encountered with finding lexical items in MDs. I approached this problem from two different avenues; therefore, I conducted two separate studies. The first study showed that ARA have a slight problem with finding the right meaning of some polysemous words. The lack of clarity in some definitions might have caused ARA to misidentify the sense they were looking for. However, in a few cases, subjects' faulty approaches and conclusions might result in them misidentifying the right sense. The second study found that ARA had a greater problem with looking up

compounds. Subject ignorance of the placement of compounds in MDs allowed their L1 look-up strategies to interfere and inhibit them from carrying out correct look-ups.

The body of evidence gathered from chapter 2 and from the above two studies may allow me to draw a conclusion that accounts for the rather large proportion of missing words, as reported in chapter 2. The problem of missing words could be partly caused by subject difficulty in finding the meaning of some polysemous words in MDs, especially when the definitions were obscure. However, two major factors might have contributed to a large part of the problem of missing words. The first factor is subjects' failure to look up compounds successfully. Chiefly, this was due to subject ignorance of dictionary policy in entering multiword expressions. Dictionary users apparently do not favour dictionary-writers' practice in entering two-word expressions. They look up AN expressions under the noun whereas these were entered under the adjective, i.e. the first element, in most dictionaries. NN expressions are looked up less consistently, but nonetheless subjects have not followed the writers' ideals. This could equally apply to looking up idioms.

The second factor was subjects' search for specialised and highly technical words that were absent from their MDs. Irrefutable evidence for this claim stemmed from subjects who responded to question 16 in chapter 2. Subjects had to recall some words they did not find in MDs. All the words given were technical and highly infrequent. Possibly, that was because most subjects were studying sciences. Also, some subjects were using inappropriate dictionaries (see question 2 in 2.2.5 and Kharma, 1985) which possibly failed them most of the time.

I believe the factors described above require two solutions which need to be implemented simultaneously; otherwise, MDs will be ineffective tools for language learning. The first solution is in finding a way of placing compounds which may meet dictionary-compilers and dictionary users' requirements. I shall discuss this point in detail in chapter 4. The second solution is to educate dictionary users in using MDs and giving them guidance on what type of dictionary can serve them best. These will be discussed further in the concluding chapter.

Up to now, I have closed the first issue raised in chapter 2; that is, missing words. However, the second issue investigated in this chapter, viz. compounds look-up strategy, has not been concluded yet. Some factors other than those described above might have accounted for the rather odd pattern of look-ups carried out by dictionary users. It is likely that word frequency was a major factor in subjects' look-ups. It is therefore worthwhile to take up this issue and investigate it on its own.

It was not possible to discuss this issue in the present chapter since the frequency of the materials was not accounted for. It is likely that a well-controlled variety of two-word items would reveal the factors that determine subjects' strategies in looking up nominal compounds. If word frequency is a factor in dictionary user look-ups of multiword expressions, I can possibly account for the unsystematic look-ups done by ARA. I shall consider this in chapter 4.

Chapter four
Exploring the impact of frequency rank order on dictionary users' look-ups

4.1. Introduction

In chapter 2, I highlighted three aspects of dictionary use that were worthy of further investigation. The first aspect, missing words, was considered in chapter 3. The second aspect, dictionary users' strategies in looking up multiword expressions, was partly considered in chapter 3. It appeared that subjects' strategies were not clear-cut especially in noun-noun compounds. It was possible that subjects opted for the least frequent element of the pair. Because word frequency was not considered in the materials used in chapter 3, it was difficult to discover whether frequency was a factor in user look-up. This chapter will investigate the role of frequency in dictionary users' look-ups of noun-noun expressions.

This will be achieved by carrying out two separate studies. Both studies attempt to find out whether word frequency has an effect on ARA look-ups. Subjects will be asked to judge the frequency of the words they look up. The data to be obtained may give insight into whether these users are aware of the frequency of the items they look up. It is expected that frequency has a role to play in the look-ups of the users of English dictionaries. Two reasons make me believe so. First, it is common sense that most dictionary users look up multiword expressions under the word whose meaning they do not know. Secondly, previous research (e.g. Bogaards, 1991a and 1992a) into the use of French dictionaries showed that users looked up multiword expressions under the least frequent element. I presume that users of French and English dictionaries may behave similarly since these dictionaries are conventionally similar (cf. Béjoint, 1994). It is possible, however, that ENG look-ups may be more affected

by word frequency than ARA. The former are more able to estimate the frequency of words. If frequency plays a part in dictionary users' look-ups, dictionary-compilers will no longer need to present these items in two places.

I shall piece together the evidence from chapter 3 and from this chapter to find out whether dictionaries' policies in entering NN items are in tune with dictionary users' expectations. I anticipate that there exists a huge gap between the two parties which ought to be bridged. However, before embarking on the studies under consideration, it is necessary to clarify the role of frequency in EFL teaching materials. This includes dictionaries.

4.2. Word frequency in EFL dictionaries and textbooks

Dictionary-compilers and EFL syllabus-designers consider 'semantic counts' indispensable, since these lists help produce more productive and functional EFL materials. Some more recent dictionaries include only the commonly-occurring words in English. And for each of these words, only the most frequent senses are listed, Miller (1953:112). EFL dictionaries are particularly expected to present entries established on a frequency basis (Cowie, 1983b; Moulin, 1983; Strevens, 1987 and Loughridge, 1990). Therefore, COBUILD entries were chosen on a frequency basis (Clear, 1987; Sinclair, 1987b and Aarts 1991).

Present-day EFL dictionaries also tend to choose their defining vocabulary on a frequency basis. *Collins COBUILD Learner's Dictionary*, LDOCE and the latest edition of ALD, 1995, use a limited defining vocabulary. Moreover, lexicographers believe that the order of the semantic varieties of the words included in these dictionaries should be chosen according to

their frequency of use. That is to say, the commonest sense of a headword normally comes first (Hornby, 1965; Kipfer, 1984a and 1984b; Benson et al., 1986 and Whitcut, 1986). COBUILD enters the senses of the headwords according to their common usage (Sinclair, 1987 and Dodd, 1989). Stein (1989) argues that LDOCE is like COBUILD in this respect. However, Hanks (1990) claims that there exists no dictionary that arranges all the senses in strict order of frequency. Again, none of the present-day dictionaries enter compounds on a frequency basis. It is worth mentioning that the latest editions of COBUILD and LDOCE, 1995, contained information on word frequency to tell the reader about the important words.

Additionally, most EFL syllabi have been compiled with frequency very much in mind. That is because common words are easily retrieved, Gregg et al. (1980). The use of frequency in teaching materials is not only common in English and other West-European languages but also in other languages, e.g. Russian (cf. Cahill, 1989). Until recently, West's (1953) word frequency list was an indispensable source for EFL syllabus-designers (Richards, 1974; Harlech-Jones, 1983 and Read, 1988). Tickoo (1988:297) maintains that it is still considered "a reference work by EFL textbook writers". Nowadays, huge corpora have been used to produce EFL materials based on frequency (cf. Willis, 1990 and Willis and Willis, 1988).

Not surprisingly, frequency has been found important in dictionary users' look-ups. Bogaards (1991a and 1992a) claimed that word frequency affected the look-up operations of French dictionary users. Native French dictionary users tended to look up multi-element units under the least frequent words. However, word frequency had little role in the look-ups of Dutch learners of French (Bogaards, 1992b). These followed their L1 look-up strategies.

The above discussion has shown that 'frequency' is very much a factor when producing EFL materials. In EFL dictionaries, for example, frequency plays a dominant role in word inclusion and in the order of senses. However, frequency has not yet been used in entering multiword expressions. Entering compounds in dictionaries on a frequency basis may save a large amount of space; an issue that is of concern for all dictionary-compilers. Such a procedure will exempt them from cross-referencing or defining the expressions in two places. However, we know nothing about whether users of English dictionaries look up compounds with word frequency in mind. Therefore, it is worth doing some research to: (a) find out whether frequency is a determining factor in EFL learners' look-ups of two-word expressions and (b) establish whether EFL learners can, in the first place, guess word frequency.

Now, that the role of frequency in EFL materials has been clarified, I can go on to describe the studies in question. These will be presented in turn.

4.3. Study one

This study attempts to find out whether the users of English dictionaries look up two-word expressions under the least frequent elements. Previous research, Bogaards (1991a and 1992a), showed that frequency rank order has a bearing on French native speakers' look-ups of multiword expressions. These users tended to select the infrequent elements as more likely to have the meanings of multi-element units. It is interesting to find out whether this factor is valid with users of English dictionaries- both natives and non-natives. To the best of my knowledge, nobody has yet investigated this issue with users of English dictionaries. I think that word frequency may affect the look-ups of the users of English dictionaries. It is

possible that these users may have realised that word-commonness is a factor in the treatment of many features in English dictionaries. It is also possible that ENG look-ups may be more affected by word frequency since ENG can judge the frequency of words better than non-natives.

4.3.1. Aim

This study deals with the search strategies of users of English dictionaries regarding two-word expressions. I intend to discover whether dictionary users look up two-word expressions under the least frequent element. I suspect that frequency may be a significant influence on dictionary users' look-ups. I expect that dictionary users look up two-word expressions under the least frequent element of the pair.

To consider this issue, users of English dictionaries, ARA and ENG, will be asked to indicate where they would look up a set of multiword expressions in MDs. This will help detect whether native and non-native users of English dictionaries differ as was the case of users of French dictionaries. In line with Bogaards' findings about the French and Dutch users of French dictionaries, my estimation is that ENG look-ups of multiword expressions may be more affected by word frequency than those of ARA.

4.3.2. Materials

Subjects were presented with 40 noun-noun units of the type described in 3.3.2. (For the sake of simplicity, I only used expressions of the type NN). The expressions were selected on a frequency basis using Thorndike and Lorge (1944). Half the expressions were high-low

frequency items (HL), e.g. *office holder*. Here, the first element is frequent whereas the second item is infrequent. The other half contained low-high frequency items (LH), e.g. *obstacle race*. Here, the first element is infrequent whereas the second element is frequent. A high-frequency word occurred 50 or more times per million words in the Thorndike-Lorge corpus. A low-frequency word occurred less than 50 times in the same corpus. The expressions were randomly selected from most 'alphabetical divisions' of the dictionary.

The subjects' task was to indicate where they would look up the expressions in an MD. If they looked them up under the first element, they had to put [1] in the box, beside the expression. If they looked them up under the second element, they had to write [2]. I presented the expressions on one sheet of paper and listed each type of expression separately. The materials used are given in appendix 4.

4.3.3. Subjects

Two groups participated in this study. The first, experimental group, consisted of 46 ARA reading for higher degrees at British Universities. Mostly, they were postgraduates majoring in sciences. The second, control group, was 35 ENG. These were undergraduates at Swansea University following a range of different courses. To choose a more able and homogeneous group of ARA, I used Meara (1992a). Subjects took test (315). Their score on this test was (92.5 out of 100, Sd 4.3).

4.3.4. Procedure

Subjects were tested individually, mostly in the presence of the researcher. Instructions were

written in English on the test sheet. Further explanation in Arabic was given on request. I told subjects that the expressions under question were single lexical items and were entered in one place in MDs.

Subjects' preferences for the least frequent elements were calculated (see appendix 11). (I omitted one expression from the HL expressions because it turned out to be of the type AN. This meant that only 39 expressions were analysed). I obtained two scores for each subject, one score for the HL expressions and the other for the LH expressions. The raw data collected in each case were the number of times the expressions were looked up under the least frequent element of the pair. Each expression looked up under the least frequent element was awarded one point. This method of analysis enabled me to examine the effect of two factors: Group (non-natives vs. natives) and Item Type (HL vs. LH). The mean scores obtained are presented in the next section.

4.3.5. Results

This study was conducted to provide an answer to the question whether dictionary users opted for the least frequent element when looking up NN expressions. Subjects' preferences for low frequency elements were computed. Table 4.1 reports the number of times subjects indicated that they would look up the expressions under the least frequent words. The results may suggest, though moderately, that both groups tended to look up two-word units under the least frequent elements. ENG seem to be slightly more sensitive to these than ARA. Obviously, the position of the infrequent elements had affected dictionary users' look-up behaviour. More infrequent items were chosen as look-up targets when the expressions were

of the type LH. This probably means that some subjects chose the first word regardless of its frequency. Others might have chosen the first word when it was a low frequency word (see discussion below). This tendency was equally clear in the behaviour of ARA and ENG.

Table 4.1. No. of times the stimuli were looked up under infrequent elements related to item type (max.19 for HL and 20 for LH)

	ARA		ENG	
	mean	Sd	mean	Sd
HL	10.3	4.1	12.5	3.2
LH	15.3	3.4	15.5	3.5

The above scores were submitted to a MANOVA, in which the main effects were GROUP and ITEM TYPE. Analysis showed that the GROUP effect was not significant [$F(1,79)=2.99$, $P<.088$]. Overall, the scores of ENG and ARA were essentially equivalent. The ITEM TYPE effect, however, was highly significant [$F(1,79)=56.8$, $p<.001$]. This occurred because the least frequent elements were picked out more often when the expressions were of the type LH by both groups. Further analysis showed that no interaction existed between GROUP and ITEM TYPE [$F(1,79)=2.97$, $P<.089$]. Apparently, frequency rank order has not affected any group more than the other.

It is possible at this stage to argue that the results above may suggest that ARA and ENG tended to look up NN expressions under the least frequent element. This has yet to be proved. However, it was plain that no difference existed between ENG and ARA. Then, the data did not bear out the expectation that ENG look-ups might be more affected by word

frequency than those of ARA.

In the next section, I shall analyse subject performance to find out how consistent it was.

4.3.6. Discussion

The sole objective of this study was to find out whether dictionary users usually opted for the least frequent element when looking up two-word fixed collocations. The ARA total mean score for looking up the expressions under the least frequent element was around 26 out of 39. This corresponds to a proportion of 66% compared to 28, 70%, for ENG. For both ARA and ENG, there is a tendency for dictionary users to look up two-word expressions under the least frequent element. In neither group, however, is this tendency so strong to be an absolutely consistent behaviour. Therefore, I cannot contend that ARA and ENG adhered to looking up two-word fixed collocations on a frequency basis.

On its face value, the above results seem to confirm, though moderately, Bogaards' finding, i.e. frequency plays a part in natives' look-up operations. This finding is in line with my expectation that the look-ups of native users of English dictionaries would be similar to those of French native speakers. However, ARA look-ups were different from those of Dutch learners of French since the look-ups of ARA were similar to those of the English native speakers. The look-ups of Dutch learners of French were found different from those of French native speakers (Bogaards, 1992b). Dutch speakers applied their L1 look-up strategies to foreign language look-ups as seen in chapter 1. This could account for the fact that ARA and ENG behaved similarly since there is no definite look-up strategy for

compounds in Arabic.

However, I would argue that the total score was not conclusive since it did not reflect systematic subject behaviour. There was an underlying variation in this score that needs discussing. Analysing the actual look-ups of each expression separately, it appeared that subjects' choices were not as systematic as appeared on the surface. This was the case of NN expressions in chapter 3. There existed a wide disparity in subjects' preferences for infrequent items. The actual subject behaviour regarding all expressions is shown in table 4.2 below. The look-up proportions are arranged according to ENG scores. The figures show the number of times subjects looked up the expressions under the least frequent element.

Table 4.2. No. of times the expressions were looked up under the least frequent items

	ENG	ARA
HL expressions	%	%
1. crown jewels	31.4	37.0
2. office holder	34.3	26.1
3. law agent	48.6	45.7
4. key signature	48.6	69.6
5. job satisfaction	54.3	45.7
6. market research	57.1	47.8
7. blood transfusion	62.9	41.3
8. life expectancy	62.9	41.3
9. quarter sessions	62.9	73.9
10. mountain ash	62.9	45.7
11. gas poker	68.6	54.3
12. eye tooth	74.3	45.7
13. youth hostel	74.3	56.5
14. press photographer	74.3	56.5
15. body order	77.1	78.3
16. night porter	82.9	89.1
17. time exposure	82.9	69.6
18. day shift	85.7	65.2

19. house arrest	85.7	67.4
LH expressions		
20. juvenile court	57.1	69.6
21. index finger	57.1	71.7
22. wedding breakfast	62.9	73.9
23. agony aunt	62.9	76.1
24. fairy tale	68.6	60.9
25. cash flow	68.6	80.4
26. vigilance committee	68.6	76.1
27. theme song	74.3	58.7
28. reference book	74.3	87.0
29. scrap yard	77.1	78.3
30. obstacle race	82.9	54.3
31. donkey work	82.9	63.0
32. parlour game	85.7	80.4
33. welfare state	85.7	93.5
34. reception desk	85.7	93.5
35. remand centre	88.6	82.6
36. anchor man	91.4	93.5
37. buffet car	91.4	82.6
38. duvet cover	91.4	80.4
39. nursery school	91.4	76.1

Table 4.2 shows some diversity between the preferences of the two groups. The largest difference was around 30%. This was the case of expression No.12 and expression No.30. Nevertheless, examining thoroughly subject preferences for most of the expressions, as shown in table 4.2, I can conclude that only small differences existed between the groups. These differences, as shown in 4.3.5, were not significant. Table 4.2 also shows that for some expressions, the two populations were not conforming to a regular look-up pattern. In addition, individuals were not looking up similar expressions in the same way. Obviously, some expressions were systematically looked up under the least frequent items in both HL expressions, e.g. *night porter* and LH expressions, e.g. *anchor man*. It was not clear why not all the expressions of the same type were not looked up similarly? However, the figures show

that subjects were more systematic in LH expressions, i.e. when the least frequent item had an initial position. Again, it was not clear why this difference occurred between the look-ups of the two types.

In my estimation, three reasons can probably account for this difference. First, the way the expressions were arranged might have influenced subjects' look-ups. I mentioned earlier that all items of each type of expression were listed together. This might have encouraged subjects to opt for the elements of similar frequency most of the time since these were together. Secondly, subjects were unable to distinguish the least frequent element all the time especially when it was in a final position. Thirdly, it is possible that subjects were opting for the first element, regardless of its frequency. Actually, by looking at subject preference, we can see a convergence of two tendencies. An obvious overlap exists between item position (first or second), on the one hand, and item type (most or least frequent), on the other hand. From a quick look at table 4.1 above, we can work out the total mean scores for both the first element look-ups and the least frequent element look-ups. These are 25 and 23 out of 39 for the first element look-ups compared to 25.6 and 28 out of 39 for the least frequent element look-ups. This includes ARA and ENG, respectively. The first element scores were slightly lower than those for the least frequent element.

Nevertheless, none of these factors is certain. Therefore, another study that can conclusively disclose which was the determining factor in subjects' look-ups is essential. This study is described below.

Possibly, I can terminate this discussion by agreeing with Bogaards' (1991a and 1992a) claim that frequency rank order has a bearing on dictionary users' look-ups. Also, my findings, as they stand, may allow me to disagree with Bogaards' (1992b) claim that non-natives' look-ups are different from natives'. The results of this study showed that ARA look-up operations of two-word fixed collocations were not different from ENG look-ups. Probably, Bogaards' finding applies only to users of French dictionaries. However, although the present results suggested that frequency might have a bearing on dictionary users' look-ups, these results were not conclusive. Therefore, I cannot draw a conclusion about word frequency impact on the look-ups of ARA and ENG unless I ascertain whether subjects can judge the frequency of words. Therefore, further investigation into this issue is still necessary.

To sum up, this study has attempted to find out whether word frequency has a bearing on learner look-up operations of two-word fixed collocations. The results showed that ARA and ENG look-ups were influenced by word frequency, but the evidence for this was not strong enough to allow a valid conclusion to be drawn. ARA and ENG alike opted for the least frequent element when looking up compounds. It is not obvious whether frequency was what spurred learners to behave the way they did. That is because it is not clear whether subjects were aware of the frequency of the words they picked out as target look-ups. Therefore, the present finding remains provisional until it is verified in another study. This is attempted below.

4.4. Study two

The previous study was concerned with finding out whether dictionary user look-up

operations of noun-noun expressions were affected by word frequency. The results obtained did not allow us to make a firm conclusion that frequency was a significant influence on ARA and ENG look-ups of noun-noun expressions. On the face of it, it seemed that the look-ups of both populations were affected by word frequency. However, subjects were not consistently opting for the least frequent element of the pair.

Two important points deterred us from concluding that dictionary users tended to look up two-word fixed collocations under the least frequent element. First, the lack of knowledge about whether subjects were aware of the frequency rank order, of the lexical items they looked up. Secondly, it was possible that subjects were opting for the first element despite its frequency. Therefore, I think that it is worth taking the trouble to investigate further the impact of frequency and first element, on dictionary users' look-ups, using more controlled stimuli.

4.4.1. Aim

This study is designed to consider the following issues:

1. To ascertain whether dictionary users, natives and non-natives, can identify the least frequent elements in two-word fixed collocations. I expect EFL learners to be less able than native speakers in judging the frequency of words. Non-natives do not usually practise and read the language as extensively as natives. I believe that if dictionary user ability to judge word frequency is assessed, it would be easier to tell the role of frequency in their look-ups.

2. To establish the role of frequency in dictionary user look-ups of two-word fixed collocations. As suggested by the results in the previous study, I still suspect that dictionary users opt for the least frequent element when they look up two-word expressions. It is very likely that dictionary users who face such expressions will search for their meanings under the element whose meaning they did not know. This element, I suspect, is mostly the least frequent of the pair. If subjects looked up most of the expressions under the elements they identified as least frequent, I could assume that word frequency is a significant influence on their look-ups. If the least frequent element is a significant factor in user look-ups, dictionary-compilers could probably save much space. This space can possibly be utilised for other purposes to make dictionaries more user-friendly.
3. To establish whether dictionary users consistently look up two-word fixed collocations under the first element. In the previous study, I suspected that subjects might have favoured the first element of the pair as more likely to contain the meaning of the expression, regardless of its frequency. To be able to determine whether this is an essential factor in two-word expression look-ups, I shall make use of some helpful material that help me do so. In line with the findings in chapter 3, I do not expect subjects' first element look-ups to be always systematic (cf. Bogaards, 1990).
4. To ascertain whether something like the 'meaning-bearer' approach accounts for dictionary user inconsistency in looking up two-word fixed collocations. It is likely that dictionary users do not pay attention to either word frequency or first element. Instead, they tend to focus on the element they think the more specific of the pair and assume this contains the whole meaning.

5. To establish whether dictionary users' expectations about the placement of two-word expressions agree with dictionary makers'. This issue can be studied on the basis of subjects' look-up of two-word expressions. According to the results obtained so far, I expect that there is a wide disparity between the two parties' expectations. This is because these expressions were often looked up in a different place from where they reside.

These issues are examined in some detail below. In order that this can be done, I shall give a list of noun-noun expressions to dictionary users. I shall then ask them to indicate where they would look them up and to guess the least frequent element of the pair.

4.4.2. Materials

As in the previous study, the stimuli were chosen on a frequency basis. This time, three types of expression were chosen: HL, LH and HH expressions. An HL expression consisted of a high-frequency element followed by a low-frequency element, e.g. *drive shaft*. An LH expression was made up of a low-frequency element followed by a high-frequency element, e.g. *junk food*. An HH expression contained two most frequent elements, e.g. *cream tea*. I introduced the latter to obtain some data about first element preferences from a neutral type of expression. Besides, this will help ascertain whether the results of first element choices in this type would tally with those of the other two types. I perceive that if subjects were opting for the first element, their scores for the three types of expression would be similar.

Sixty noun-noun expressions were selected from EFL learners' dictionaries- 20 of each type

(see appendix 5). I assigned subjects two tasks but I advised them to do each task on its own. First, like the previous study, they were required to indicate under which element they would look up the expressions in MDs, if they wanted to know their meanings. Secondly, they had to identify, by means of underlining, the word they thought the least frequent of the pair. I believe that the data collected from these tasks would help confirm the effect of frequency on subject look-ups. If subjects' frequency look-ups were matched with their frequency judgements, it would be easy to tell whether subjects were consistently selecting the least frequent elements of the expressions.

No criterion was adhered to in the presentation of the stimuli, i.e. they were randomised. The only constraint on the randomisation was that items of the same type would not be listed together. I followed this procedure to avoid any unwanted order effect.

4.4.3. Subjects

Two groups took part in this study. The first one, an experimental group, comprised 42 ARA enrolled at British Universities, mostly postgraduates majoring in sciences. The second one, the control group, was 42 native University Swansea undergraduates following a range of different courses. To describe the language skills and choose an homogeneous and able group of ARA, I used Meara (1992a). Subjects did test (415). Their score on this test was (90.6 out of 100, Sd 6.1).

4.4.4. Procedure

Instructions were written on the test sheet in English. Further explanation was orally given in

Arabic on request. I told subjects that the expressions in question were single lexical items placed in one part of the dictionary. Subjects were tested in small groups, mostly in the presence of the researcher.

Regarding the first and second issues, frequency judgements and least frequent element look-ups, all subjects' frequency judgements and look-up operations were analysed. As to the former, two mean scores were computed. The first score was for the frequency judgments of HL expressions and the second score was for the frequency judgements of LH expressions. Each least frequent word identified as such was awarded one point. As to subjects' frequency look-ups, I computed the number of the expressions looked up under those elements correctly recognised as least frequent. Each expression looked up under a correctly identified least frequent element was awarded one point. Those unmatched pairs had nil scores. I calculated two scores for each subject. The first score was that for the HL expressions and the second for the LH expressions. The mean scores for both frequency judgements and look-up operations are given in tables 4.3 and 4.4, respectively.

With respect to the third issue, first element look-ups; subjects' mean score for the first element preferences were calculated for the three types of expression. Here, the scores analysed were the number of times the expressions were looked up under their first components. Again, each expression looked up under the first element was awarded one point. I perceived that a break down of subjects' first element choices would help find out how systematic was subject performance. Therefore, subjects were divided according to their behaviour. I distinguished four patterns of behaviour. Two patterns were related to ITEM

POSITION (first element, FE, vs. second element, SE). The other two patterns were related to ITEM TYPE (most frequent, MF, vs. least frequent, LF). This means that four scores were computed for each subject, one for each pattern of behaviour. Then, subjects were re-categorised according to the highest score they obtained. Thus, if a subject's FE score would figure highest, he was considered an FE follower. Since one Arab and five English subjects scored equally on two patterns of behaviour, it was necessary to exclude them when the results were reorganised.

The fourth issue concerned confirming whether meaning was a factor in subject look-ups. In order to have an idea about the way subjects went about their task, I interviewed more than half of the two samples used in this study. Subjects, ARA and ENG, were shown their responses and asked about the criterion upon which they performed their task. The answers given are discussed in 4.4.6.

As to the final issue, dictionary users and dictionary-compilers' expectations about the placement of nominal compounds, the subjects' correct look-up scores were computed. Here, each expression looked up under the first element was given one point. To reiterate, nominal compounds are entered under the first element. These results will allow us to discuss whether dictionary users' expectations coincide with dictionary-makers' practice in placing multiword expressions. Here, I examined dictionaries' forematters and workbooks (see bibliography) to find out how much guidance dictionary users were given about looking up compounds.

4.4.5. Results

As for the first issue whether dictionary users could identify the least frequent element in two-word fixed collocations, I obtained two scores: one for each type of expression (see table 4.3). The scores give the number of times the least frequent elements were correctly identified. The results show that subject ability at judging the frequency of words was good. However, both populations might sometimes have a slight problem with identifying word frequency.

Table 4.3. Mean correct frequency judgement related to item type (max.20)

	ARA		ENG	
	mean	Sd	mean	Sd
HL	17.0	3.0	16.8	3.8
LH	16.1	3.3	15.5	3.6

A MANOVA was used to assess whether there existed any GROUP or ITEM TYPE effect. It appeared that the GROUP effect was not significant [$F(1, 82)=1.56$, $P<.215$]. Apparently, the scores of the two groups were similar. Also, the ITEM TYPE effect was not significant [$F(1, 82)=3.65$, $P<.60$]. Interestingly, the position of the least frequent word did not appear to affect subjects' judgements. Again, no significant interaction was found between GROUP and ITEM TYPE [$F(1, 82)=1.13$, $P<.292$]. The position of the least frequent word had no noticeable effect on any specific group. These results confirm that dictionary users are mostly aware of the frequency of the words they wanted to look up. What we need to know now is whether this knowledge affects their look-up operations, viz. the second aim of this study.

The mean scores for subject preference for the least frequent elements as to HL and LH expressions are reported in table 4.4. The scores here account for the number of times the expressions were looked up under the elements identified as least frequent. Overall, the results are far from indicating that dictionary users looked up the expressions under the least frequent elements. This rules out the suspicion that frequency was a significant influence on dictionary user look-ups.

Table 4.4. Mean scores for least frequent element look-ups (max.20)

	ARA		ENG	
	mean	Sd	mean	Sd
HL	7.5	5.3	9.5	4.9
LH	10.2	6.3	10.3	6.1

A MANOVA in which the main effects were GROUP and ITEM TYPE was undertaken. The GROUP effect was not significant [$F(1,82)=.85$ $P<.360$]. ENG and ARA scores were not dissimilar. The ITEM TYPE effect was significant [$F(1,82)=7.31$, $P<.008$]. More least frequent elements were chosen when these elements were at an initial position. This result is similar to that obtained in the previous study. This assures that these scores had nothing to do with the non-randomisation of question order, as suggested in the previous study. No significant interaction was demonstrated between GROUP and ITEM TYPE [$F(1,81)=2.09$, $P<.152$].

The third issue concerned dictionary user first element look-up operations. Table 4.5 shows subjects' first elements choices for the three types of expression. Here, the scores account for

the number of times the expressions were looked up under their first parts. The results do not show that dictionary users were favouring the first element. Both groups' scores are very low and fail to confirm my expectation that the first element in two-word expressions might have played a significant role in subjects' look-ups.

Table 4.5. Mean first element look-ups relating to item type (max.20)

	ARA		ENG	
	mean	Sd	mean	Sd
HL	11.8	5.7	8.0	3.8
LH	12.8	5.5	12.5	4.4
HH	11.6	4.5	8.5	3.4

The above scores were submitted to a MANOVA in which the main effects were GROUP and ITEM TYPE. It appeared that the GROUP effect was significant [$F(1,82)= 10.99$ $P<.001$]. This difference is because ARA selected the first element as the look-up target slightly more than ENG. This is not high enough to suggest a first element look-up strategy that is sufficiently consistent to be of assistance in the placement compounds. Such scores can be easily obtained by random guessing. The ITEM TYPE was also significant [$F(2,164)= 12.24$ $P<.001$]. This is possibly because ARA and ENG favoured the first element more when the expressions were of the type LH. It is also possible that this is due to the variation between the individuals' look-ups. The MANOVA also demonstrated a significant interaction between GROUP and ITEM TYPE [$F(2,164)= 4.50$ $P<.013$]. The item type had more influence on ENG look-ups than on ARA look-ups.

Because I noticed some variation between the individuals' look-ups, it was necessary to examine their look-ups further. This was in order to mirror the actual performance of subjects. This may reveal any underlying patterns of behaviour and account for dictionary users' inconsistencies. Table 4.6 presents the different patterns of behaviour discovered within the overall score. These were: First and Second Elements and Most Frequent and Least Frequent elements.

Table 4.6. Mean score for FE, SE, MF and LF relating to item type (max.20)

	ARA				ENG			
	FE	SE	MF	LF	FE	SE	MF	LF
No. Ss	12	3	13	13	5	4	10	18
HL	15.3	13.0	17.9	14.1	13.8	12.7	17.0	13.311
LH	14.5	14.0	17.0	14.3	17.8	15.0	17.6	4.0
HH	15.9	15.0	*	*	12.3	13.5	*	*

* It is difficult to compute these score for HH expressions

A chi-squared test showed no evidence for association between the POSITION and FREQUENCY patterns, on the one hand, and the groups, on the other hand (x^2=1.301). Also, the chi-squared test showed no association either between FE and SE and groups (x^2=2.309) or between MF and LF strategies and groups (x^2=1.194).

The final issue related to dictionary users' expectations about the placement of two-word expressions and whether this coincided with dictionary-makers' practice. Table 4.7 gives the number of correct look-ups for the two groups. The scores show that the two parties' views about the position of the expressions in dictionaries are not compatible. Both groups failed to look up about 40% of the expressions correctly.

Table 4.7. Mean successful look-up operations (max.60).

	ARA	ENG
mean	36.4	29.6
Sd	9.4	8.0

A t-test was used to assess whether there existed any differences between the two groups as to their preferences for the first elements. The result found was significant ($t=4.14$, $p<.045$ with 82 df). This indicates that ARA significantly looked up more expressions correctly. This may be due to the strategies used by individual subjects. This result tallies with that in table 4.5 where ARA appeared to look up more expressions under the first element than ENG.

The results in this section showed that subjects had only little difficulty with judging word frequency. Contrary to my expectation, there was no difference between the judgements of the two groups. Neither ARA nor ENG scores corroborate my claim that dictionary users look up the expressions under the least frequent element. A simple comparison between the overall scores for subjects' frequency judgements and frequency look-ups can clearly refute this claim. Only about half of the items identified as least frequent were chosen as targets for look-ups by ARA. Slightly more than half of the items were chosen by ENG. Therefore, I can argue that these results do not bear out the supposition that frequency is very much in dictionary user minds when they looked up noun-noun expressions. Likewise, subjects' scores were not high enough to reflect a systematic first element look-up strategy. A breakdown of subjects' look-ups showed that each individual has his own look-up pattern. Four patterns of behaviour were discovered. This is an indication that factors other than those investigated above must have affected dictionary user look-ups (see below).

4.4.6. Discussion

Contrary to my expectations, ARA total scores for frequency judgement (table 4.3) indicate that non-natives can judge the least frequent word in HL and LH pairs as successfully as natives. No difference appeared to exist between the achievement of both groups. They appeared to have only slight difficulty with making word frequency judgements. These results tend to confirm that natives and non-natives' subjective judgements of word frequency are mostly in line with objective word counts. It is possible that some subjects' judgements were not correct because of Thorndike and Lorge (1944), against which the judgements were checked. The frequencies of some of the words in this list may have changed. More importantly, this list does not differentiate between the frequency of the different senses of words- a flaw spotted by many scholars (e.g. Makkai, 1980).

It is sensible to speculate about the factors which enabled ARA to judge the frequency of most of the items correctly. Nation (1990) suggests some clues that facilitate word frequency recognition by EFL learners. One of these clues is the commonness of the words in EFL learners' lessons. I can think of this suggestion as a probable factor which may have played an active role in ARA judgements. Encountering a word so often helps the readers judge its frequency correctly. However, this is not always true especially with domain-specific words. In such a case, a candidate may judge a word subjectively. A word that is uncommon to most people may be judged as common because this candidate encounters it a lot. Some examples like this were spotted in this study. For instance, Computer Science students considered *bank* in *data bank* the least frequent word. Probably, this was because of the commonness of the word *data* in their reading and writing materials.

Another clue that may help EFL learners judge word frequency correctly is the frequency of the equivalent translation in the learners' mother tongue. This may be true if we exclude those culture-specific words. Eaton (1940) found that mother tongue translation equivalents were a significant factor in judging word frequency in the foreign language. However, I have no idea about how much benefit ARA derived from the frequency of their L1 equivalent translations of the stimuli. This is due to the lack of an Arabic frequency list, making this factor impossible to check. I suspect that EFL learners can derive more benefit from their L1 equivalent translations in the interrelated Indo-European languages (see Arnaud, 1990).

It was surprising that some native speakers failed to form correct judgements. Common sense suggests that they would do better than non-natives. Previous research into frequency estimates has found that native speakers are good predictors of word frequency (Howes, 1954; Shapiro, 1969 and Carroll, 1971).

It is in fact not surprising that ENG scores were similar to those of ARA for something similar was obtained by other researchers. Native speakers of French were poor at guessing the frequency of some French words, Bogaards (1991a). Likewise, Arnaud (1990) found that non-natives, American university students, did better than native speakers of French as to judging the frequency of 30 French lexical items. Arnaud's justification for the superiority of non-natives' scores to natives' scores was insubstantial. He claimed that the French institution where the non-natives studied was highly selective, contrary to the other French colleges that were open to all students. However, the American subjects were also better than the French subjects at guessing the frequency of some English words.

The analysis of subject frequency judgements showed that most subjects, ARA and ENG, were consistently able to identify most of the least frequent words. Notwithstanding, no single least frequent word was unanimously recognised as such by both groups. However, little individual difference existed in subjects' judgements. The individual frequency judgements showed that most of the 40 least frequent words in HL and LH expressions were recognised as such by all ARA. Only eight words, 20%, were recognised as low-frequency elements by fewer than 80% ARA. The hardest items to judge were *mug shot* and *pressure group* where about 43% and 58% ARA, respectively, misidentified the least frequent elements. In comparison, ENG had difficulty in judging *mug shot* and *shock therapy*, whereby 40% and 53% ENG, respectively, misidentified the least frequent elements. Possibly, the subjective estimates here are more accurate than Thorndike and Lorge's, as their estimate was compiled early in the forties.

In summary, from the above results, I can draw the conclusion that the same amount of agreement on word frequency existed between natives and non-natives. Furthermore, natives and non-natives' subjective judgements on frequency identification were mostly in line with objective word counts.

Table 4.4 showed that subject preference scores for the least frequent items were not high enough to indicate that word frequency had affected dictionary user look-ups. ARA scores for least frequent element look-ups were only 44% and 63% of what they correctly identified as least frequent elements in HL and LH expressions. This compared with 56% and 66% for ENG. This result does not bear out my suspicion that word frequency is a significant

influence on dictionary users' look-ups of noun-noun expressions. If we observe the difference between the scores for the two types of expressions, we may come to realise that subjects opted for the first element instead of choosing the least frequent element. Subjects' scores for HL expressions, where the least frequent word was second, were lower than that for the LH expressions, where the least frequent word was first. This could indicate that subjects were favouring the first element.

As illustrated in table 4.5, the scores for first element choices were again not high enough to indicate that the expressions were looked up with the first element a determining factor. However, these group averages are not interesting. On the contrary, sometimes they are even misleading. They tend to hide the underlying variation in subjects' look-ups that in turn may have resulted in different patterns of behaviour followed by individual subjects. Such variation is, however, inherent in dictionary users' look-up strategies (cf. Bogaards, 1991a). The analysis of subject score characterised four patterns of behaviour (see table 4.6).

Subjects seemed to have looked up the expressions either according to item position or according to item type. Three of these patterns, i.e. FE, MF and LF, were almost equally exhibited by ARA. ENG seemed to follow MF and LF patterns more than the other two patterns. However, it appeared that not all subjects classed as followers of a certain pattern of behaviour were consistently following this pattern. This is reflected well by the scores in table 4.6. This can indicate that other factors should have affected subject look-ups. It is likely that these patterns were the result of something else which may have played a role in both groups' look-up operations. Therefore, I speculated about other reasons to account for

this rather strange behaviour. The more likely influence which I thought might have accounted for subjects' behaviour could have been their concentration on the meaning of the expression. Subjects might have opted for the element which specified the meaning of the expression.

As mentioned earlier on, I interviewed more than half of the subjects from the two populations and asked them about the way they looked up the expressions. The answers elicited from both groups confirmed my suspicion about the role of meaning in two-word expressions look-ups. Briefly, the interviewees said that they were searching for the 'meaning-bearer' or what some linguists have called the "heaviest word" which "specifies the expression the most", Martin and Al (1990:398). On the surface, this seems to be a straightforward strategy but actually this is not so. The look-ups are supposed to be determined by the element that dictionary users perceived as the 'meaning-bearer' of the pair. However, the 'meaning-bearer' was not governed by any criterion. That is to say, it was not always clear since dictionary users were sometimes divided as to which element could be the 'meaning-bearer'. For example, many subjects argued that in *breast pocket*, it was *pocket* which they hunted for "because it indicated the meaning of the expression rather than *breast* which had to do with anatomy". In *brain drain*, on the other hand, *brain*, like in "brain washing" in chapter 3, was considered to be the 'meaning-bearer'.

Sometimes, subjects' look-ups were amazingly unsystematic. Each subject seemed to have his own way of deciding the 'meaning-bearer'. Possibly, this was because they could not tell which was the 'meaning-bearer', especially in those expressions where the meaning was not

the sum of the two components. In "telephone book", for example, it is perhaps difficult to decide which part is more specific since the compound is not a book about telephones (Trimble, 1985). This might result in subjects looking up similar expressions differently, not only by the two groups but also by individuals. Such a tendency might have been the cause of the unsystematic first element or least frequent look-ups (see table 4.4 and 4.5).

This behaviour can only indicate that subjects did not follow any particular strategy and were not sure of where they could look up the expressions. Therefore, their look-ups sounded as if arbitrarily performed. Consequently, their scores did not reflect any systematic look-up behaviour. This leads us to the final issue in this study; that is, the noticeable difference between dictionary users and dictionary-compilers' views about entering compounds shown in table 4.7.

The results of correct look-ups showed that a wide gap existed between dictionary-compilers' practice in entering compounds and the way users looked them up. Both ARA and ENG failed to look up about half of the expressions correctly. Apparently, the main reason accounting for this is the fact that users were not well acquainted with EFL dictionaries' policies. Dictionary-makers did not enter compounds where dictionary users expected to find them.

Some teachers and lexicographers (e.g. Moulin, 1979; Whitcut, 1986; Tono, 1988 and Battenburg, 1991) perceived that the way out of this problem was by using cross-references. In my view, this is not an ideal solution. On the contrary, it is counterproductive and

time-consuming. In fact, a cross-reference is an indication that lexicographers lack any feedback concerning dictionary users' expectations. Moreover, it may result in lexicographers giving two different definitions of the same lexical item (Stein, 1989 and Bogaards, 1991a). Therefore, we need to ponder upon some solutions to this problem. For example,

> Who should bend? The lexicographer or the user? Should lexicographers try to change their methods in order to meet the demands of the potential consumer? Or should they attempt to educate the consumer into new ways of behaving ... (Crystal, 1986:78).

I think that the second choice has to be opted for because it is hard to account for some subjects' look-ups. We have seen above that most subject look-ups were unsystematic. Entering compounds under the 'main', the 'least frequent' or the 'meaning-bearer' element cannot be a practical solution. This is because dictionary users differed about looking up multiword expressions under these elements. It seems that dictionary-compilers have made only little effort to alert dictionary users to their policies. EFL dictionaries have implemented a clear-cut policy, which I appreciate, in entering two-word expressions. They placed all nominal compounds under the first element. Dictionary-compilers have to endeavour to make this policy known to users especially it was not piloted (see dictionaries' introductions) but was established according to lexicographers' intuition.

Some dictionary-compilers claimed that this policy was established to better serve EFL learners. Cowie (1989:62), for example, comments that "To help with those problems of understanding, EFL dictionaries should treat ... a tidy sum at **tidy**...". This policy is not in line with the findings discovered so far about dictionary user look-ups of adjective-noun expressions, where most users appeared to look them up under the noun.

I believe that what is required is an intensive effort to educate dictionary users. The current policy in placing two-word expressions will remain counterproductive unless dictionary users are made aware of it. I expected dictionaries' front matters and workbooks to help in this respect. To my disappointment, this was not so. After carrying out a close examination of the front matters and workbooks of ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE, I can convincingly point out that these materials have not contained clear and sufficient guidance regarding the placement of compounds. Regarding front matters, ALD offers no help at all. LDOCE only mentions the sentence "Compound words appear in their own space in strict alphabetical order" (p.f17). I wonder whether the unwary reader can notice this in the middle of the paragraph. COBUILD, on the other hand, states that "All entries are given in strict alphabetical order ..." (p.vii). Actually, this is to some extent misleading because if we look up *living memory*, we shall find its meaning under *memory*. Only a cross-reference is given at *living*. It seems that COBUILD considers this compound an idiom. In short, pity the poor users who seek help and self-access from dictionary explanatory materials. They will find little help and if any is offered, illustrate examples, may well be missing.

As for workbooks, only the LDOCE workbook gives some guidance in finding compounds. This is often without examples. It is strange that these workbooks do not offer guidance on how dictionary users can find compounds. It seems that this problem is common to other dictionaries' workbooks. Having taken a close look into 16 monolingual learners' dictionary workbooks, Stark (1990) concludes that the placement of two-element words has been overlooked. Thus, it can be argued that the commonly held view regarding dictionary front matter is false despite Soekemi's (1989:205) contention that it "guides the users on how to use

the dictionary effectively". The same is true of workbooks giving users a head start on how to use a dictionary to its potential (Kipfer, 1984b and Stark, 1990). Sad to say, it seems that dictionaries address linguists rather than EFL learners.

Bearing in mind that front matters may not be read, dictionary-makers can do three things which can help alert dictionary users to their practice in entering multiword expressions. These are:

1. To provide users with appropriate handbooks. Possibly, these materials as well as dictionary front matters have to be written in users' mother tongues with illustrative examples in English. This may encourage dictionary users to make use of these materials. Presenting these in colours may also help gain user attention.
2. To move towards a merger between these handbooks and their relevant dictionaries.
3. To train EFL teachers so they can properly instruct dictionary users to make the best and proper use of these fascinating tools.

This latter suggestion implies that dictionary-compilers and EFL teachers have to work hand in hand to educate users. EFL teachers must share with lexicographers their burden in educating dictionary users. Teachers can play a crucial part in making dictionaries easier to access. Huang (1985:256) and Hartmann (1986) demonstrate that "teacher guidance is all-important". Furthermore Strevens (1987) suggests that the productivity of learners' dictionaries depends heavily on teachers. I believe that instructing EFL learners properly will help them overcome most of the difficulties they encounter. This can prove to them that

dictionaries are user-friendly and timesaving tools. Possibly, training in dictionary use has to be incorporated in school curricula at an early stage of learning. Not only that, but also EFL textbooks should include some exercises that can teach EFL learners how to use dictionaries. If such a thing is not done, it is likely that MDs will remain unread and therefore useless.

To conclude, the chief aim of this study was to find out whether dictionary users looked up two-word fixed collocations under the least frequent element. This was done in an attempt to verify findings from the previous study, that frequency had a role in looking up noun-noun units. To discover the role of word frequency in dictionary users' look-ups, subject ability to judge the frequency of two-word expressions was assessed. ARA and ENG alike were good predictors of word frequency. They could consistently distinguish most frequent from least frequent elements. Guessing the frequency of some words was a problem only in a few cases.

Regarding subjects' look-ups, the results evidently have shown that neither natives nor non-natives' look-ups were affected by word frequency. Concerning the third aim of this study, first element look-ups, the results obtained did not indicate that this factor was significant. Subjects' scores were around chance level. Interviewing some candidates, from both populations, to get some information about their look-ups showed that they laid emphasis on the meaning of the expression. They claimed that they opted for the 'meaning-bearer' in the expression. This behaviour appeared to be unpredictable because dictionary users were not of one mind as to the element that could be the 'meaning-bearer'. This resulted in a wide gap between dictionary user look-ups and dictionary-maker practice. It appears that what dictionary users considered the 'meaning-bearer' was not necessarily the

right element, under which the meaning was entered in EFL dictionaries.

4.6. Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to investigate ARA look-up strategies of noun-noun expressions. I tried to find out whether frequency had played a part in dictionary user look-up operations of noun-noun compounds. Two studies were conducted to consider this point. The first study found that dictionary user look-ups might have been affected by word frequency. Subjects seemed to favour the least frequent element as a look-up target for noun-noun expressions. The frequency effect was not always obvious, however. An overlap seemed to exist between two factors: word frequency and first element. Subjects might sometimes look up the expressions under the first element. Therefore, the second study was set up to confirm the findings from the first study.

The second study showed that subject look-ups were performed without any indication of word frequency or first element effect. Sometimes, dictionary user patterns of behaviour seemed to diverge widely. This, as the subjects themselves claimed, was due to focus on the 'meaning-bearer' in the expression. In this respect, each dictionary user seemed to have his own criterion upon which he determined the element that specified the meaning of the expressions.

From these findings, I can conclude that neither word frequency nor first element was a significant factor in dictionary user look-ups. The scores obtained were not high enough to represent a consistent look-up strategy. Dictionary users seemed to favour the

'meaning-bearer' as more likely to include the meaning of the term. Also, these findings allow me to contend that Bogaards' finding that native speakers of French looked up multiword expressions under the least frequent element may apply only to French dictionary users. Likewise, the present findings disagree with Bogaards' (1992b) finding that the look-ups of Dutch learners of French were completely different from those of native speakers of French. It appeared that ARA and ENG look-ups were similar. However, ARA made more successful look-ups than ENG. The different patterns of behaviour regarding the looking up of noun-noun compounds, exhibited by dictionary users, encourage me to agree with the dictionary-compilers' policy of entering all compounds under the first element. This is provided that users are made aware of the practice.

Up to now, I have covered the first two issues raised in chapter 2: (a) investigating what causes ARA problems with missing words and (b) finding out what affects ARA look-ups of compounds. Now, it is time to move to the third issue raised in chapter 2, which is investigating the way ARA deal with dictionary definitions. Likewise to reveal their problems with understanding and using dictionary information. These points are covered in the remainder of this thesis.

Chapter five
The effectiveness of dictionary explanation

5.1. Introduction

In chapter 2, it was found that only 26% ARA had problems with dictionary definitions. This result ran counter to my expectation that ARA would experience a great difficulty. This proportion is far fewer than those revealed in other studies. This small proportion may have resulted from a number of causes. Firstly, and most importantly, subjects might have misinterpreted the variable 'unsatisfactory definition' in chapter 2. Possibly, they did not respond to this question because it did not specify the nature of the problem with definitions. This could have been due to unclear metalanguage, long explanation, lack of sufficient guidance on usage, lack of examples or the use of 'etc'. Secondly, subjects may have been reluctant to show that they had problems with definitions. Thirdly, subjects may really have no problem with handling definitions. This is a very remote possibility because research into EFL learners' reference needs revealed that most users had difficulties.

Using words looked up in MDs in acceptable sentences proved to be an uphill task for some dictionary users (cf. Mitchell, 1983b; Miller and Gildea, 1985 and Nesi and Meara, 1994). In 3.2, I considered what Miller and Gildea (1985) called "half of the battle", i.e. finding certain meanings in MDs. In this chapter, I shall consider the other half; that being, using the meanings found in sentences. "We can say that a student knows how to use a dictionary if, after looking up a meaning of a word, he uses the word correctly in realistic contexts", Ndomba (1983:22). This will verify findings in chapter 2 and reveal what is problematic for ARA in dictionary definitions. Also, this will ascertain whether ARA follow the kidrule

strategy. Briefly, kidrule means that dictionary users choose a familiar fragment of the definition. They then interpret or modify it and use it in their sentences. This technique was common among native schoolchildren (Mitchell, 1983b; Blachowicz, et al., 1990; Scott and Nagy, 1990) and EFL learners (Nesi and Meara, 1994).

Besides kidrule, previous research into using MDs definitions showed that users' problems closely duplicate some of the aspects of knowing a word. Most users' errors were related to some aspects specified as a prerequisite of knowing a word. Richards (1976) and Nation (1990) suggest that learners need a variety of knowledge about a vocabulary item such as *meaning concepts, collocation, associations, and its limitation of use*. Learners are not considered to know a word until they assimilate all these aspects. It is possible that MDs have failed to provide enough information to help users learn the prerequisite aspects of knowing a word and prevent kidrule. Bensoussan (1983), for example, found that dictionary use did not affect advanced learners' performance in reading comprehension. A further level of sophistication is still required on the part of MDs to prevent kidrule and help users use new vocabulary items correctly.

To accomplish this, I shall compile a corpus of sentences produced by ARA with the help of COBUILD and LDOCE. The errors spontaneously produced after immediate dictionary consultation will be analysed according to the definitions in use. This will allow us to assess the effectiveness of different dictionary definitions. ARA may have considerable difficulty with using dictionary definitions for production tasks. Prior research (e.g. Randall, 1990 and Ryan, 1993) have shown that ARA had problems with handling English words.

5.2. The study

This study attempted to establish whether users can interpret dictionary definitions correctly. In addition, it investigates the readability of present-day definitions after the recent emphasis placed on their productivity. Certainly, some refinements can be incorporated into EFL dictionaries or used by EFL teachers to facilitate greater success.

5.2.1. Aim

This study addresses four issues. These are as follows:

1. To examine whether ARA can use dictionary definitions correctly. In view of previous research, ARA may fail most of the time. This is due to the great difference between English and their mother tongue concerning script, word order and usage.
2. To reveal the kinds of mistakes ARA make and the patterns of behaviour they display when using dictionary definitions. According to findings from prior research into error analysis (e.g. Balhouq, 1982 and Meara and English, 1988), most ARA errors may be collocational in nature. ARA may behave similarly to schoolchildren, i.e. apply the 'kidrule' strategy.
3. To discover the possible reasons for these mistakes and patterns of behaviour. As noted by other researchers, ARA may fail some sentences because of the application of kidrule. Other causes may be the absence of some vital information from dictionary entries. This may cause users to resort to their own word knowledge which in turn can lead them astray. Also, some errors may occur because of user inappropriate interpretation of meanings.

4. To ascertain whether different defining styles of MDs affect the appropriateness of users' sentences. LDOCE entries may be more productive than those of COBUILD. Tickoo (1989b) argues that LDOCE definitions are particularly suitable for EFL learners. LDOCE explanations are considered easier to access and comprehend because of its strictly controlled vocabulary of 2000 words.

Although most EFL dictionaries are now using a limited defining vocabulary (see ALD, 1995; COBUILD, 1995 and Collins COBUILD English Learner's Dictionary, 1994), lexicographers and teachers of English differ about the usefulness of the defining vocabulary. For more details see (Michiels et al., 1980 and 1982; Michiels and Noël, 1984; Neubauer, 1984 and 1987; Kirkpatrick, 1985; Herbst, 1986; Jansen et al., 1987; Cowie, 1989; Fox, 1989 and Miller, 1991.

The results to be obtained will give us insight into the way EFL dictionaries are best used through the revelation of errors induced by using the definitions.

5.2.2. Materials

Because this study was conducted together with 3.2, the stimuli used here were the same as in 3.2.3, twenty infrequent lexical items. Unlike other similar studies (Miller and Gildea, 1985; McKeown, 1993 and Nesi and Meara, 1994), these were contextualised, i.e. used in sentences. Each sentence was followed by a dictionary explanation of the target word. The target words were paired with another set of words to be used in the sentences. The latter consisted of 20 highly frequent words selected from Hindmarsh (1980). These words were

randomly paired with the target words. This procedure was to prevent subjects from copying the examples in the entries. Likewise, to reduce the amount of inappropriate sentences, which are difficult to judge.

As in chapter 3, two separate test forms were designed (see appendixes 2.1 and 2.2). Each form contained 20 sentences, each with one word underlined. The sentences were followed by an entry for the target word from one dictionary. Unlike Nesi and Meara (1994), the explanations were presented in full. Underneath the explanation came a pair of words (the target word and the additional word described above) thus:

Who is game for a walk in this cold weather?	

entry for "game"

game adventure <= Use **BOTH** these words in a sentence		

A traditional task in vocabulary learning domain- sentence composition task- was assigned to testees. They had to use the meaning they had read and the randomly selected word in a sentence. This would show whether they understood the meanings. Subjects were asked to confine themselves to this particular meaning. No restriction was imposed on the use of any derivative of the second word.

5.2.3. Subjects

The subjects who took part in this study were the same as in 3.2.4.

5.2.4. Procedure

Test forms were randomly distributed among subjects. Eighteen subjects completed COBUILD forms (COB) and the rest, 22, completed LDOCE forms (LDO). For some practical reasons, the time factor was not accounted for, subjects completed tests at their own pace.

719 sentences were analysed. 81 sentences were discarded because the required sense was not used in the sentences produced. Some subjects could not identify the required sense of the underlined word (see 3.2.). Others produced sentences using the most frequent sense of the target word. (Many of the subjects who misidentified some meanings in 3.2 produced sentences containing the required senses in this study). The number of discarded sentences was about the same in both groups: 38 from COB and 43 from LDO.

With regard to the first and second issues, the subject-generated sentences were examined by three experienced EFL teachers to judge whether the situation described was appropriate for the meaning of the target word. Judges were provided with a short training session giving the criterion upon which they had to rate the sentences. This resulted in a high agreement among their evaluations. An interrater reliability of about 95% agreement was obtained. Three types of sentences were distinguished. They were: (1) *Appropriate sentences* (APPsen): when the writer showed that he had understood the meaning and used it correctly (see appendix 10) (2)

Inappropriate sentences (INAsen): when the writer failed to use the right meaning of the target word (3) *Other sentences* (OTHsen): sentences of this type enjoy one characteristic; that is, the writers seemed to have comprehended the meaning but for some reason they failed to use it correctly. This allowed me to compute subjects' mean scores for each type of sentence. The results of raters' judgement are shown in table 5.1.

Further analysis was made of OTHsen to ascertain the different categories of errors committed. These were classified into three main types. They were: collocational (COLerr), syntactic (SYNerr) and usage (USGerr). Orthographical mistakes were ignored. These categories were treated as mutually exclusive. In COLerr, the writer mistook the 'subject', 'object' or 'preposition' which could occur with the target word. In SYNerr, the writer confused the tense or plural suffixes, transitivity or (in)definite article. Likewise, using the target word in a different word class was considered SYNerr. In USGerr, the writer confused the connotation or the context of the target word, 'voice' in verbs and other stylistic matters. Mostly, these categories mirrored Maingay and Rundell's (1987) categorisation of the errors: semantic, collocational, syntactic and stylistic. In my case, the first two were taken together, since it was difficult, sometimes, to distinguish whether an error is collocational or semantic. Again, the label 'usage' is more comprehensive than 'stylistic'.

Regarding the reasons for the occurrence of the above errors, a close examination was carried out for the sentences produced and their relevant dictionary definitions . Sentences were matched with the definitions to discover the possible reasons for errors. The various reasons which produced INAsen and OTHsen are discussed in 5.2.6. It should be noted that these

reasons cannot be wholly accurate since it is sometimes difficult to read subjects' minds.

The scores obtained were subjected to a t-test to reveal any significant difference between the performance of COBUILD and LDOCE users.

5.2.5. Results

The principal issue addressed here was to find out whether ARA could use certain meanings for production correctly. As described above, three types of sentence were distinguished (see table 5.1).

Table 5.1. % of sentence type

	APPsen	INAsen	OTHsen
	55.8	19.0	25.1

Mean scores for each type were computed (see table 5.2). Obviously, these scores do not add up to 20 because of the missing values. A high percentage of erroneous sentences, i.e. INAsen and OTHsen was found. As expected, this is an indication that ARA had great difficulty with handling the newly encountered meanings.

Table 5.2. Mean scores for all three types of sentences related to dictionaries

	COB			LDO		
	APPsen	INAsen	OTHsen	APPsen	INAsen	OTHsen
mean	11.5	2.7	3.5	9.5	3.9	5.1
Sd	4.2	2.1	2.2	4.0	2.5	2.0

Administering a t-test to all scores, no significant dictionary effect was demonstrated. The

results were as follows: APPsen (t=.243, p<.625 with 38 df); INAsen (t=.341, p<.563 with 38 df) and OTHsen (t=.173, p<.680 with 38 df). This implies that no dictionary induced the production of a significantly different proportion of correct or erroneous sentences.

The results of the classification of OTHsen are shown in table 5.3. As expected, the largest percentage was for COLerr. This type seems to be prevalent in EFL learners' work. This result confirms findings from research into error analysis (e.g. Henning, 1973; Balhouq, 1982; Meara and English, 1988; Radwan, 1988 and Zaabalawi, 1992) where a high proportion of EFL learners' errors were lexically inadmissible collocations.

Table 5.3 % of categories of errors related to dictionaries.

	COLerr	SYNerr	USGerr
COB	56.2	17.2	26.2
LDO	64.0	18.4	17.5

A t-test showed no significant dictionary effect on the performance of the two groups either for COLerr (t=.341, p<.562 with 38 df), SYNerr (t=1.56, p<.167 with 38 df) or USGerr (t=2.001, p<.165 with 38 df). Neither dictionary encouraged the occurrence of a specific type of error.

The statistical tests used failed to demonstrate any significant difference between the correct and erroneous sentences of the two groups. This also proved to be true regarding the categories of errors. Consequently, there was no dictionary-use effect on either group. This result ran counter to my expectation that LDO may fare better than COB. Likewise,

Cumming et al. (1994) did not find any significant difference between learners' production with COBUILD and LDOCE. It seems that including a limited defining vocabulary does not mean that new meanings can always be correctly incorporated in sentences.

In brief, the results above have shown that ARA had a serious problem with dictionary definitions. These results bear out my suspicion that ARA would have grave difficulty with understanding definitions and incorporating them in correct sentences. The majority of the erroneous sentences were collocational in nature.

Below, I shall discuss the types of errors made and the potential reasons for their occurrence.

5.2.6. Discussion

The first issue was to probe ARA ability in using definitions with ease. The results in table 5.2 showed that about half of ARA sentences were erroneous. This means that ARA had grave difficulty with using dictionary definitions. This contradicts the finding in chapter 2 where only a small proportion of ARA had problems. It seems that winning the first half of the battle, i.e. disambiguating the meaning of contextualised words, does not necessarily imply winning the second half, i.e. using the meanings correctly. Dictionary users seemed unaware of the fact that they usually misinterpreted definitions. As stated below, 45% ARA could not show that they understood the meanings they had read. Thus, the assumption that subjects might have misunderstood what was meant by 'unsatisfactory definitions' in chapter 2 is true.

It is not unusual, however, that the subjects failed to produce correct sentences about half of the time. Nesi and Meara (1994), in comparison, have reached similar results. Both findings do not reflect Battenburg's (1991:16) optimism that MDs can prevent users from making errors. I now propose to examine the possible reasons for the errors. I shall first discuss INAsen and then go on to discuss OTHsen.

INAsen, i.e. absolutely wrong sentences, was approximately 19% of the whole corpus. To know what test-takers did, I scrutinised their sentences and compared them with the relevant entries. This led me to ascribe the errors to the following possible reasons. Firstly, it was possible that subjects could not interpret the meanings. Some sentences manifested their failure to show their comprehension of the meaning of some target words. Therefore, they composed unacceptable sentences. Here are some examples:

a. The son **willed** a car when his father died.
b. I **manned** with my friends to buy a bicycle.

The writer in (a) had misinterpreted the meaning of *will* and presumed that it meant 'inherit'. In (b), the writer interpreted LDOCE definition of *man* (provide with people for operation) as (entering a partnership). Possibly, the errors were caused by user inattention. Unfortunately, there is little help that dictionary-makers can offer in this respect.

Perhaps, one possible solution is to produce much clearer definitions to better serve users and make information more plain. However, dictionaries cannot stop user misunderstanding especially if it occurs through user carelessness and inattention (cf. Offord, 1990). They may need some training in how dictionary definitions can be best understood. EFL teachers are

suited to this role. Skilful dictionary users would make fewer erroneous sentences (cf. Tomaszczyk, 1987). Mitchell (1983b) and Kipfer (1987) observed that instruction in dictionary use improved users' skills and helped produce correct sentences. It is possible that subjects failed to check their sentences against the original entries. If sentences were checked against the relevant entries, it would be possible that the writers would realise their mistakes.

Secondly, users seemed to pick out only one part of the definition and used this as the entire meaning. Probably, they were not reading the explanation fully or possibly it was ambiguous and lead them to make an inappropriate choice. They thus used the target word in a sentence with the sense they deduced. This behaviour is to a large extent similar to the kidrule look-up technique (cf. Miller and Gildea, 1985). Below, I shall discuss some sentences produced with kidrule very much in the writers' mind and define the way these were composed. The examples show that writers only used some parts of the definitions and ignored other vital information that could give guidance on the correct use of target words.

Tables 5.4 and 5.5 below present some samples produced by COB and LDO. To make the tables self-explanatory, I provided the related definitions and pinpointed the possible segment used. It is not clear, however, why those particular fragments were chosen. Possibly, they had a particular attraction for users. It is also likely that users were well acquainted with their meanings. In vocabulary learning, learners usually prefer words which can be generalized to use in more than one context (Blum and Levenson, 1978). As explained below, subjects did not distinguish what constituted the core of the definition and what was the elaboration. Here again, training is needed.

Table 5.4. Kidrule strategy in sentences produced by COB (The words "flaw" and "raise" are presented in the extra column)

Sentence	Dictionary definition	Segment
An actor was **bagged** while he was playing.	If you bag an animal or bird, you shoot or catch it while hunting.	shoot
You can **bob** the carpet to the kitchen size.	If you bob someone's hair, you cut it in a bob.	cut
Walking on the beach is a **hole** in their eyes (i.e. from their point of view).	A hole in a law, theory, argument, etc is a fault or a weakness that it has. EG The new tax law has several holes in it.	fault or flaw
My work **rears** my brain's capabilities.	If you rear children, you bring them up until they are old enough to look after themselves. EG Geraldo had adopted and reared four children.	raise
The police officer was **sprung** when told by his boss to wear a cap even when sitting at his desk.	If you spring some news or a surprise on someone, you tell them unexpected news or ask them to do something that surprises them.	surprise

Table 5.5. Kidrule strategy in sentences produced by LDO

Sentence	Dictionary definition	Segment
The thieves tried to **bag** the famous actor.	[T] to kill or catch: (animals or birds): We bagged a rabbit.	kill or catch
His story about what happened to him on the beach was a **hole**.	[(in)] a fault in reasoning: trying to pick holes in other side's arguments...	fault
he **manned** the place with an expert to repair the bike.	-nn- [T] to provide with people for operation: Man the lifeboats!...	provide

The boy's brain was **reared** by extensive training in maths and logic.	[T (on)] to care for until fully grown: She's reared a large family...	care for
The team won the cup so they **sprang** a big party that night.	[T (on)] to make happen or make known suddenly and unexpectedly: We sprang a surprise party on them...	make happen.

Clearly, the sentences above show that writers used the target words in the meaning of the segments they picked out. Apparently, writers were not only choosing the synonyms provided but they were also picking out any fragment they perceived as the 'meaning-bearer'. Naturally, they tended to ignore the rest of the information, especially that presented between brackets. Because these fragments were not real synonyms of the defined words, the sentences produced were not acceptable.

Defining by means of synonyms can thus be counterproductive especially when it comes to encoding. Hanks (1988:43) criticises this technique, labelling it as the "contorted style of modern dictionaries". Levenson (1979:152) points out that learners usually overgeneralise and ignore "register restrictions" and "collocational restraints" of synonymous words. However, some lexicographers (e.g. Benson et al., 1986) and teachers (e.g. Williams, 1985 and Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1990) recommend the use of synonyms in definitions and vocabulary teaching. I think that if lexicographers feel that the use of synonyms is indispensable, they have to show the specific nuance of these words. Summers (1988:117) points out that "Differentiation from other similar words may be necessary for accurate comprehension".

Another point worth raising, is that some sentences showed the ineffectiveness of including some information, i.e. collocations, in parenthesis. Some users appeared to overlook the information because they might not have understood its function and consequently did not realise its importance (cf. Gray, 1985 and Hanks, 1987).

The analysis of subjects' composition showed that particular words in the stimuli were more prone to this type of behaviour than others. This, I think, is due to the way the definitions were formulated. *Skirt*, for example, invited the largest number of errors accounting for about 10% of INAsen (14 out of 133).

a. The man **skirted** to eat from the cake ..... COB
b. The cake was very bad so she **skirted** it... LDO

By matching these examples with the relevant definitions, we shall recognise that the writers considered *skirt* to mean "avoid". Although the wording and the style of COBUILD definitions were different from those of LDOCE, COBUILD did not deter the writer from pursuing kidrule. The writer ignored everything in the definition and chose the word "avoid" as the entire meaning of *skirt*.

The above findings suggest that more attention and skilfullness in dictionary use are required on the part of users. Also, dictionary-makers need to modify definitions to preclude kidrule errors (see chapter 7).

Three categories of error were distinguished in 5.2.4. These were: collocational, syntactic and usage. The examination of sentences with such errors showed that the following causes

might have accounted for their occurrence. (It should be noted that these reasons were speculations and sometimes they might not be mutually exclusive). First, in a few cases, it was possible that some errors were made because of writers' failure to profit from the information provided. This might be because they took no notice of this information or because they wanted to use their own word knowledge. Let us consider these sentences:

a. He is afraid to **blind** her husband with her story.(COLerr)
b. He always **fishes** warm news.(COLerr)
c. When I finish my degree in August, I will be a **hand** in a petroleum company.(COLerr)
d. This girl always **skirts** the idea of cake-making.(COLerr)

The writers here failed to benefit from particular information in the pertinent definitions, i.e. 'lexical collocations'. In *blind*, dictionaries indicated that "facts" and "science" can occur with it but the writers overlooked them and used other collocates. Similarly, some writers passed over "farm" and "factory" given in the entry for *hand*. They used words like "company", "university" and even "names of countries", instead. The same thing applies to *skirt*. LDOCE gives the example "skirting a question" and COBUILD says that one "skirts a subject or a question", but some users wrote about "skirting stories", "skirting secrets", etc..

There were also some instances where subjects failed to grasp the grammatical collocations in the entries. As shown in (b) above, the writer missed out the prepositions "for" and "around". In my opinion, this might occur because this information was excluded in parenthesis. By and large, the dictionary is very much to blame here because it does not drop a hint, that the use of certain words, is restricted to particular contexts. For example, nothing indicates that *hand* can only be used with "farm" and "factory" especially when it is defined as "worker".

Secondly, the absence of some critical information from the definitions might have caused the trouble. Often, it was obvious that dictionaries let down their users (see also Nesi, 1987 and Maingay and Rundell, 1987). Here, subjects were in the right area but they could not hit the right choice because they were poorly served by MDs. It would have been possible to prevent some of these errors if the dictionary had offered the required information. The following examples may illustrate this phenomenon:

a. The actor **bagged** a whale...
b. He **bagged** the actor's pet.
c. The journey was exhausting because the road **winded** strongly.

Here, the information that presumably could have forestalled users' production of such sentences was lacking. Both COBUILD and LDOCE state that one can bag an animal. Obviously, in line with this guidance, sentences (a) and (b) were produced. The markers, however, did not consider these sentences correct because a *whale* and a *pet* are not considered animals. The answer is certainly 'Yes', both dictionaries define them as animals. How then can poor users deduce that certain animals are excluded? Similarly, no help at all was offered by dictionaries regarding the adverb that can repeatedly be used with *wind*. This accounts for sentences such as in (c) above.

In certain cases, e.g. *rear, fish*, etc. LDOCE induced more OTHsen than COBUILD. Possibly, this was due to the variation in the crucial information given by these dictionaries. For these words, COBUILD seemed to be more helpful since it prevented the occurrence of errors to which LDOCE was conducive. Let us consider this sentence by an LDOCE user:

Never neglect **rearing** your brain.

Here, LDOCE (see table 5.5) does not offer users any information about what they can rear. The same thing holds true to *fish*. The definitions do not also show whether animate or inanimate 'subjects' can be used with the target words. COBUILD, on the other hand, explains that one can rear a child or an animal. It also makes clear that one can *fish* for "information" or "praise". If LDOCE-compilers want users to generalise their definition of *rear* as "care for", they have to expect that users will say *rear* someone, as well as some thing.

Thirdly, some errors were possibly made because of writers' overreliance on synonyms, especially in one-word definitions. Defining by synonyms, as discussed above, encouraged subjects to produce errors. It seemed that users believed these words to be equivalent and what collocated with the synonym also occurred with the target word. This habit might be transferred from their L1. Generally speaking, less restriction on the use of synonymous words exists in Arabic than in English, Zaabalawi (1992). Let us consider these sentences:

a. He is **fishing** for some food in the red cabin.
b. He was **fishing** for a girl in a red dress.
c. I will be a **hand** at a garage in August.

If we match these sentences with the relevant entries, we will realise that the latter are responsible for the errors committed. In (a) and (b), it can be easily observed that the writers might have assumed that *fish* was exactly like "search" in the LDOCE definition. They, therefore, used *fish* with "food" and "girl". The same thing might have applied to *hand* which

was defined as "worker" in both COBUILD and LDOCE. Neither dictionary has shown any restriction on the use of *hand*. It is likely that the above sentences would not be produced if warnings about the use of the target words were included. Jain (1981) found that EFL learners had a formidable problem with discriminating between synonymous words. EFL learners failed to use these correctly because MDs did not offer enough guidance as far as synonymy, selection constraint and semantic structure were concerned.

Fourthly, defining some words by means of 'etc' seemed to cause users some difficulty. Some entries used 'etc' to show that other items can still occur with the defined word. It appeared that some subjects were unable to deduce the correct words to replace 'etc'. In the COBUILD definition of *hole*, is "story" one of those words meant by 'etc'? It is doubtful that users can provide the words that can replace 'etc' and collocate with the target word, especially as insufficient clues exist in the definitions.

Fifthly, the absence of any collocator from some definitions might have been the cause of some errors. It is true that we have no strong evidence that all the subjects profited from the illustrative materials provided in the explanation. However, in line with findings in chapter 2, whereby 78% of the subjects claimed they used examples, I suspect some subjects missed the illustrative sentences in the explanation. These might have given some guidance on how the words under consideration could be correctly used.

In short, INAsen and OTHsen might be preventable. What is needed is to present some 'selectional restrictions' on the definiendum. Probably, as Marello (1987) recommends, EFL

learners have to be told explicitly that this word can only occur with this or that word. Unfortunately, the co-occurrence restrictions in MDs are not clear at all.

Maingay and Rundell (1987) claim that 'lexical analysis' can help users use words correctly. Accordingly, words are dealt with by analysing their semantic, syntactic, collocational and stylistic features (see also Ayto, 1983). In principle, this suggestion is fine but it is difficult to apply in practice due to the paucity of space. Possibly, with the advent of new technology by the beginning of the 21st century, machine-readable dictionaries will be available.

I noted that the major reason for SYNerr was, as in 3.2, that some subjects tended to use the target word as a different part of speech. Although most of these sentences were acceptable as far as the new word class use was concerned, they were considered erroneous because of this word class conversion. It is not clear why the writers did not adhere to the required sense. Possibly, it is because they did not know how to use the target sense. Maybe, they failed to follow the instructions, as was the case in Nuccorini (1992). The following exemplifies this category of error:

In her **will** Jane mentioned that her computer has to be buried with her.
The books total **net** for this year was 5000 pounds.

The discussion above revealed some points of difficulty that ARA encountered with dictionary entries. It seemed that ARA had a grave difficulty with collocations. Deciding which word(s) can occur with a certain lexical item seemed to be difficult. The major cause for this problem was probably the absence of the necessary collocational information. When

present, this information was perhaps insufficient to allow the users to produce correct sentences. Sometimes, it was presented in a certain way that users might have failed to observe. This applied to lexical and grammatical collocations. This claim is still to be proved, since there is no strong evidence to substantiate it. Therefore, it is worth conducting some research to investigate it more thoroughly.

The final issue was whether the different defining styles of MDs might affect EFL learners' productive dictionary use. The analysis of the data in table 5.2 and table 5.3 above demonstrated no significant difference between the two groups' production. LDOCE simple metalanguage appeared to have no bearing on users' production of any type of sentence. This result may be disappointing for those who favour the use of restricted vocabulary in definitions. Evidently, the definitions of both dictionaries resulted in a large number of errors. This finding, however, disagrees with that uncovered by MacFarquhar and Richards (1983) where the majority of users considered LDOCE definitions clearer and easier than other dictionaries. Again, this result was not in line with that reached in chapter 3. COBUILD appeared to be superior to LDOCE in helping dictionary users locate and decipher the meanings required.

5.3. Conclusion

In this study, I have been concerned with the effectiveness of dictionary entries on EFL learners' productive use. Four issues were investigated. The first issue concerned whether ARA can use dictionary definitions successfully. It appeared that subjects failed to produce correct sentences about half of the time. This evidence conflicts with the finding in chapter 2

where only a small proportion of ARA indicated they had problems. It also confirms my suspicion that ARA would encounter problems with handling dictionary explanation.

The second and third issues related to the types and causes of errors committed by ARA. Around 19% of the sentences were completely wrong. Kidrule errors, where users latched onto some parts of the definition, seemed to account for many. Here, the definitions seemed to spark off most errors and encouraged users to adopt the kidrule strategy, especially where synonyms were used. Three minor categories of error, about 26% of the corpus, were discovered. Collocational errors invited the largest number of erroneous sentences. Subjects made far fewer syntactic and usage errors.

The following reasons may have caused the occurrence of these errors. Sometimes, the errors might have been induced by the absence of some crucial information from dictionaries. At other times, however, the reason was possibly subject failure to benefit from the information present. Here again, the information was sometimes presented in a way that users seemed not to notice. Some definitions were formulated in a way that encouraged ARA and other users (cf. Nesi and Meara, 1994) to select certain parts of the definition as if they bore the word's entire meaning. They sometimes collocated these fragments with words that could not occur with the target words.

Finally, COBUILD and LDOCE appeared to be similar. Contrary to my expectation, LDOCE did not induce more correct sentences than COBUILD. More importantly, no dictionary appeared to induce more errors in any of the three categories. Despite dictionary-makers'

endeavour to restrict themselves to a special metalanguage and their use of a novel defining style, definitions were sometimes less productive than expected.

This study showed that some dictionary definitions were ineffective. Even though there is plenty of evidence that the compilers of COBUILD and LDOCE have made an effort to present clear and complete definitions, more improvement is still needed to produce more serviceable dictionaries. As appeared above, a large number of errors were possibly caused by the definitions themselves. Most of these errors seem to be preventable, nonetheless. This can be accomplished by creating new entries that can account for the causes of learners' errors. Before this can be done, some of the problematic features of definitions should be investigated to ascertain whether they were in reality problematic. Collocational errors figured high in this study. Two of the reasons suggested to account for the occurrence of this type of error are worth pursuing. They are:

a. The information present was not clear and sufficient to allow users to produce correct sentences. Here, subjects could not probably deduce what could be used with the target word. Dictionary-compilers possibly assume that EFL learners are not in need of some information about collocation, so they do not explicitly include it. However, the evidence we have for this claim is not strong. Therefore, it is worth ascertaining whether the collocational information present in dictionary entries, is enough to allow users to use the defined words correctly. This is considered in chapter 6.
b. Some definitions present some collocational information in parenthesis and represent the rest by an 'etc' at the end of the definition. Above, we have seen a few instances

where some subjects did not do well with words whose definitions contained 'etc'. Subjects who did not confine themselves to the collocates present in the definition, made catastrophic collocational errors by using some words that could not co-occur. One thing may have accounted for subjects' failure to do well; that is, EFL learners were unable to extrapolate from the definition other words that could collocate with the target word. Again, no strong evidence has been obtained to corroborate this claim. Therefore, I shall do some research to establish this point. This again is considered in chapter 6.

Considering these two aspects, I intend to gather cogent evidence for the problematic features in dictionary entries. I can then create new entries which could overcome the ambiguities of previous definitions.

Chapter six
How dictionary users handle collocational information

6.1. Introduction

Collocation has frequently been problematic for foreign language learners especially when it comes to production (Van der Wouden, 1992 and Bahns and Eldaw, 1993). EFL learners usually experience some difficulty with using collocation correctly, for this is sometimes unpredictable. Brown (1974) stated that collocational difference between languages is problematic even for advanced learners. They either use their intuition or they resort to dictionaries. Singh (1988) and Ter-Minasova (1992) claim that learners' dictionaries currently on the market do not provide users with enough insights into collocation. Benson (1985a and 1985b) argues that such dictionaries have to provide users with a greater number of collocations to cater for their needs. Mindful of these criticisms and the adverse results obtained from my previous study, I intend to examine the helpfulness of EFL dictionaries in judging collocations. Also, this chapter aims to provide an insight into the way EFL learners handle collocational information.

To achieve this, I shall conduct two separate studies. The first study will investigate EFL learners' ability to judge some verb-noun collocations after dictionary consultation of the two parts of the collocation. The second study will concern EFL learners' ability to use definitions that contain 'etc' to provide extra words that can collocate with the defined word and to identify the items that cannot collocate with the defined word.

Before embarking on these studies, I need to set the scene by explaining what is meant by

collocation and examining the way EFL dictionaries treat them.

6.2. Collocations in EFL dictionaries

Collocation is the co-occurrence of two lexical items within a specified 'co-text'. Linguists (e.g. Martin et al., 1983; Cop 1990; Nattinger and Decarrico 1992; Bahns 1993) have suggested several definitions of collocation, which are basically the same. The meaning of collocation is frequently readily deducible from its particular components. Benson et al. (1986) considered *collocation* between idioms and free combinations. Its collocability, according to Aisenstadt(1979) and Cowie (1984), may be **loose**, e.g. confirm mastery where both "command" and "authority" can replace "mastery" or **obligatory**, e.g. pick a fight where "quarrel" and "argument" cannot replace "fight".

A collocation usually consists of a *node* and a *collocate*. The *node* is the lexeme "whose total pattern of co-occurrence with other words is under examination". And the *collocate* is the item "which goes with the node within a specified environment" (Jones and Sinclair, 1974:16). Different groups of collocations are recognised in English. They are: AN, e.g. grave concern; NN, e.g. aptitude test and VN, e.g. foot the bill. This last type of collocation is the vehicle of this chapter.

Collocation has received some attention from EFL teachers and lexicographers alike (e.g. Cowie, 1978; Rudzka et. al, 1981 and 1985; Alexander, 1984; Benson, 1985c, 1989a and 1990; Benson and Benson, 1988; Cop, 1990; Sinclair, 1991; Ter-Minasova, 1992; Brown, 1994 and Chi et al, 1994). EFL dictionaries responded to this attention by increasing the

number of collocations. In the last editions of EFL dictionaries, many new collocations were added. However, scanning EFL dictionaries, one notices that many of the defined word's collocates are missing. Looking up a random sample of about 100 VN collocations in ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE, I have found that more than 30 expressions are missing. Naturally, the inclusion of the rest varied from one dictionary to another.

I still do not know the criterion upon which dictionary-makers enter the collocates of a certain word. Cowie (1981) claims that this is because lexicographers are unaware of the frequency of collocations. However, this claim does not sound very convincing. Possibly, space plays some role in the inclusion of collocation. Space restrictions sometimes deter lexicographers from producing ideal definitions (Landua, 1984). Also, lexicographers may think that some collocations are acquired unconsciously rather than explicitly (Mackin, 1978) or they may consider them too rare to include. Although these collocations are absent, the dictionary does not present any usage notes to warn users against restrictions on the use of the word in question. The absence of such notes may encourage users to make false generalisations (see below).

Looking for some collocations in EFL dictionaries, users may encounter the problem of locating some VN expressions. It seems that the presentation of these expressions is unpredictable. There is no straightforward rule that can indicate where the *collocates* that habitually occur with a certain *node* can be found. I wonder why "feel guilty", "impose restraint", "increase tension" are entered under the noun, while "grab the chance", "nose a car", "proclaim allegiance" are placed at the entries for the verbs? Since these collocations

cannot be searched for alphabetically, as is the case of compounds like "taken aback" or "cut across", a practical solution to this problem is necessary.

Hausmann (1985) has suggested an appropriate approach to the placement of VN collocations. He considers a VN collocation such as "administer a rebuke" to consist of a *base* "rebuke" and a *collocator* "administer". He rightly suggests that in dictionaries designed for decoding, collocations should be placed at the entries for the *collocators*. In dictionaries written to help users encode, i.e. learners' dictionaries, collocations should be entered at the entry for the *base*. This suggestion sounds sensible and feasible because dictionary users usually want an answer to the question "what do we typically do to (a noun)?" (Leed and Nakhimovsky, 1990:367). The results in chapter 3 appeared to bear out this argument. When looking up adjective-noun compounds, subjects went for the noun (see also Tono, 1988 and Bogaards, 1992b). Therefore, it will be sensible to give examples about the VN collocations at the entry for the noun (see discussion below). Benson (1989b) offers another solution. He believed a more practical solution was to provide a 'noun index' so users could find under which verb entry a noun appeared (see also Wallace, 1982). I believe this to be space-consuming, repetitive and similar to cross-referencing techniques.

The final problem is to decide where collocations can be placed. They may be embedded in the definition (COBUILD) or in the examples. ALD lists collocations in the definition, separated by a slant stroke. I doubt the usefulness of this technique because there is a danger that users may mistake these words for synonyms. I believe the only sensible alternative is to insert them in the examples (see discussion below). Syntagmatic lexical relations, as de

Stadler (1992) points out, are usually accounted for in the examples rather than incorporating them in the definitions. Examples play a key role in providing users with collocations (Drysdale, 1987; Marello, 1987 and Cowie, 1989). Unfortunately, many examples offered in dictionaries do not present any collocation (see chapter 7).

6.3. Study one

6.3.1. Aim

This study has been undertaken to investigate the following issues:

1. To examine the feasibility of whether dictionaries can help EFL learners judge VN expressions, on the basis of entries for their components. Usually, EFL learners consult dictionaries to establish which lexeme can occur with the word they want to use. Having one word, they can look it up to find out what occurs with it. If they have a verb and a noun but unsure of their collocability, they will look up the NOUN to find out whether it can be used with the verb. On the basis of the results from chapter 5, I expect that dictionary users cannot tell whether some VN collocations are acceptable. This is because EFL dictionaries do not provide sufficient clues. Seemingly, dictionary-compilers assume that EFL learners can manage with the information currently present in MDs.
2. To examine whether dictionary explanation helps EFL learners make better judgements of the acceptability of correct or incorrect VN expressions. I expect learners to do better with the acceptable expressions. This is because there is no information under the two parts of the unacceptable phrases to warn learners of the lexemes that cannot

collocate with the defined word.

3. To examine the way EFL learners handle collocational information. From learners' poor results in chapter 5, I think that dictionary users do not scrutinise the explanation well enough to obtain the desired information. They tend to skim the definition and overlook the information that would help them judge the expressions. Probably, they jump to conclusions without examining the definitions closely. To this purpose, I shall ask some learners to provide verbal report data. (This was not meant to be a study on its own, but rather a means to reinforce the findings).
4. To ascertain whether dictionaries vary in their help to users regarding VN collocational information. I think that COBUILD, because it contextualises the target word in real sentences and gives some of the defined word's collocates, is more helpful than LDOCE. Tickoo (1989b:199) maintains that "CED [COBUILD] is a dictionary that attempts a full-scale treatment of word combinations" (see also McCarthy, 1990).

6.3.2. Materials

20 VN phrases, e.g. *crush resistance* were used. Most were 'fixed combinations', where the range of synonymy of the verbs according to Benson (1985a) was restricted. For example, in *stifle a yawn*, the only synonym of the verb *stifle* that could be used is *suppress*. Ten of the expressions were made-up phrases. Here, the "node", i.e. verb, of a correct expression was replaced by a synonymous verb, so the meaning of the expression became unacceptable. The "base", i.e. noun, however, was kept unchanged. For example, instead of presenting the students with the expression *stifle a yawn*, I substituted *conquer* for *stifle*. The other ten examples remained the same.

Testees had to complete a pretest and main test. The pretest contained a list of the 20 expressions in question. The testees had to say whether these expressions were correct. The purpose of this test was to assess the testees' knowledge about the expressions before dictionary use. The main test contained the expressions used in sentences followed by a full dictionary explanation. Two separate test forms were designed because the definitions were drawn from COBUILD and LDOCE. Order of entries was randomised. Each testee read a sentence and dictionary entry to decide whether the phrase was correct. Real and made-up expressions were muddled and the order of expressions in the main test was different from that in the pretest. The materials used are reproduced in appendixes 6.1 and 6.2.

6.3.3. Subjects

These were students studying English at a Teacher Training Institute in Syria who wanted to become EFL teachers. They had six years experience of studying English before enrolment at the institute. Applicants at this institute follow a two-year intensive course in English. They are trained to be qualified teachers of English for Beginners and Intermediates. Both test forms were randomly distributed among the students. Fifty-five students, COB, worked with COBUILD explanations and 50 students, LDO, worked with LDOCE explanations. Subjects were equated on Meara's (1992a) test (320). COB score on this test was (84.6, Sd 6.7 out of 100) whereas LDO score was (82.8, Sd 7.7 out of 100). A t-test demonstrated no significant difference between the two scores ($t=.59$, $p<.560$).

6.3.4. Procedure

Subjects took the pretest first, followed a few days later by the main test. Both tests were

completed during regular class hours. Instructions were presented in English and further explanation was given in Arabic by subjects' own teachers.

During data analysis, I observed that some variation existed in the two groups' pretest scores. Possibly, the testees' knowledge about these expressions was diverse. Therefore, I undertook a matching process of both groups' scores to eliminate the differences between the average values. I excluded all subjects whose scores I could not match which resulted in two identical pretest groups. In each group, the final subject number was 32.

In total, 2560 answers were marked. As to the first objective, mean scores for correct responses were obtained for pretest and main test (see appendix 12). One point was scored for each correct answer. The difference between the total mean scores would account for subject performance. Also, I computed the possible percentage of gain, i.e. answers incorrect on the pretest and subsequently correct on the main test. Likewise, the percentage loss was calculated, i.e. answers correct on the pretest but subsequently incorrect on the main test. It was necessary to match the individuals' answers on both tests. This was achieved using a computer program especially written to compare answers on both tests. Four types of responses were distinguished. The first two types (unchanged) were: correct→correct and wrong→wrong. Here, the answers remained the same on both tests. The second two types (changed) were: wrong→correct, where some gain was made and correct→wrong, where some loss was registered.

It must be remembered that a test of this nature can never be wholly accurate. Several factors

pertaining to testees blindly guessing, poor concentration, misreading the question, etc. also influence these results. Tests of this nature must be considered as 'rules-of-thumb' and are aids in defining our overall analysis. The following scores must be interpreted with this in mind.

Results obtained from this analysis helped me assess the help offered by MDs to judge the stimuli. I examined the definitions with subjects' responses, so that some possible reasons for subjects' failure would be suggested. This was complemented by a native speakers' assessment of the definitions. I gave the definitions to two EFL specialists. They were required to examine the definitions and say whether these contained any information that could help judge the expressions in question correctly. Their findings are discussed in 6.3.5.

Concerning the second issue, the testees' responses were broken down to check with which type of phrase they did best. Four sub-scores were obtained for each subject: two mean scores for the correct and made-up phrases on the pretest and two mean scores for the correct and made-up phrases on the main test. Thus, the total mean scores for the two groups were computed. The raw data analysed here were the number of times the two types of phrases were judged correctly.

Regarding the third issue, i.e. testee behaviour, it was necessary to carry out a think-aloud protocol. Here, candidates verbalised their thoughts so that I could describe their behaviour and cognitive process when completing the test. Two student volunteers tape-recorded what they did while completing the test. One student worked with COBUILD (from now on,

STcob) whereas the other student worked with LDOCE (from now on, STldo). The students' task was the same as those who completed the paper-and-pencil test. In addition, they had to underline the part of the definition that helped them judge the expression. A brief explanation was given to subjects about think-aloud protocols. Each subject completed his task in a separate room in his own time. Further details are given below.

The scores were submitted to statistical tests in order to ascertain whether dictionaries varied in their help to users. The results obtained are described in 6.3.5.

6.3.5. Results

Issue one in this study was whether respondents could judge the appropriateness of VN collocations from the information in the entries for verbs and nouns. Scores for correct answers on both tests are presented in table 6.1. As expected, these scores show that subjects did very poorly. Scores for correct answers were low and the difference in scoring between the two groups was very small. The results of both tests seem to be around chance level. Dictionary use seemed to improve the testees' scores only slightly.

Table 6.1. Mean correct scores on the pretest and main test (max.20)

	COB		LDO	
	Means	Sd	Means	Sd
pretest	10.8	2.3	10.8	2.3
main test	12.7	2.3	11.9	2.7

Undertaking a MANOVA where the main effects were GROUP and DICTIONARY USE, I

found that the GROUP effect was not significant [F(1,62)=.57, p<.453]. This means that no significant difference was demonstrated between COB scores and LDO scores. The DICTIONARY USE effect was found highly significant [F(1,62)=17.07, p<.001]. Subjects appeared to benefit from using MDs to judge the expressions but, as expected, only little improvement was made. This result, however, does not indicate the amount of knowledge acquired from dictionary explanations. This will be discussed in the next section. No significant interaction was demonstrated between GROUP and DICTIONARY USE [F(1,62)=1.07, p<.306]. Although both groups benefited from dictionary use, individual dictionaries did not seem to better affect the degree of improvement achieved by subjects.

Total scores in table 6.1. did not allow me to deduce the level of improvement made by the testees. This necessitated a further analysis to determine the possible percentage of gain and loss (see table 6.2). Levels of gain were unspectacular, especially considering the amount of loss, which was comparatively large.

Table 6.2. % of loss and gain on the main test relating to groups

	COB	LDO
loss	14.9	17.7
gain	23.9	22.5

A t-test showed no significant difference between the scores of the two groups either for loss (t=1.17, p<.246 with 62 df) or gain (t=.35, p<.727 with 62 df). This shows that neither COBUILD nor LDOCE significantly affected subjects' performance in both cases.

The native speakers had an identical assessment of the definitions (see table 6.3). (Items from one to ten are correct while those from 11 to 20 are incorrect).

Table 6.3. Existence of information which helps judge the expressions in EFL dictionaries

	LDOCE	COBUILD
1. register a complaint	yes	yes
2. relinquish the floor	no	no
3. administer an injection	no	yes
4. swallow anger	no	yes
5. override a veto	yes	yes
6. crush resistance	yes	yes
7. hatch a conspiracy	yes	yes
8. draw up an agenda	yes	yes
9. coach a team	no	yes
10. display bravery	no	yes
11. originate a job	no	no
12. augment experience	no	no
13. design music	no	no
14. conquer a yawn	no	no
15. thrust a missile	no	no
16. increase war	no	no
17. budge gear	no	no
18. grip the chance	no	no
19. retrieve consciousness	no	no
20. recall law	no	no

Frequently, neither dictionary gives any information to help users infer the collocates of the defined verb or noun However, COBUILD apparently catered for users' needs more often especially with the correct expressions. However, as above, it appears that information was frequently unclear and did not help EFL learners judge the expressions correctly.

Issue two related to the difference between performances values with correct and made-up expressions (see Table 6.4). This presents a breakdown by expression category for each

group. Four scores were obtained for each subject. Little difference appeared to exist between scores for correct and made-up phrases on both tests.

Table 6.4. Mean correct answers for the correct and made-up expressions (max.10)

	COB		LDO	
	correct	made-up	correct	made-up
pretest	5.5	5.3	5.8	4.9
main test	6.5	6.1	5.8	6.1

Submitting the scores for correct expressions to a MANOVA in which the main effects were GROUP and DICTIONARY USE, both factors were not significant. However, a significant interaction was demonstrated between GROUP and DICTIONARY USE for correct items [$F(1,62)= 4.11$, $p<.047$]. COB appears to be more affected by dictionary use than LDO. Possibly, the COBUILD definitions provide more helpful information than LDOCE. Again, no significant GROUP difference was found for made-up expressions, but a highly significant DICTIONARY USE effect was demonstrated [$F(1,62)= 15.48$, $p<.001$]. Both dictionaries appeared to have slightly assisted the testees in correctly judging some made-up expressions. However, the improvement achieved is still not impressive in both cases. No interaction was demonstrated between GROUP and DICTIONARY USE in the case of made-up expressions.

The final issue was whether dictionaries differed in their assistance in subjects' judgements of the expressions. Contrary to expectations, the tests revealed that COBUILD and LDOCE were much the same. Neither dictionary appeared to help the testees very much. However, dictionary use appeared to be effective although it did not result in very much improvement.

6.3.6. Discussion

As shown in table 6.1, the degree of improvement made by the testees after dictionary use was very small. (We must remember that we are attempting to run a slide rule across human nature. Such results may be due to various factors having no bearing on dictionary use). Surprisingly, some testees even lost points on the main test. Two reasons could account for this. First, the testees responses on the pretest were of a hit-or-miss approach. In which case, they did not have pre-knowledge of the expressions and answered haphazardly. Both groups' score on the pretest was (10.8 out of 20). Secondly, and more importantly, the explanation misled subjects inducing them to change on the main test. Subjects did not improve very much after dictionary use.

Actually, If we scrutinise these entries, we can possibly argue that the information was sometimes ambiguous. Examining some made-up expressions, we can easily see that little information existed to help users collocate with the verb or noun in question. That is, no selectional restrictions were presented on the use of the target word (see below).

In *budge the gear*, the information in both dictionaries was ambiguous. LDOCE definition of *budge*, [to (cause) to move a little], is ambiguous as it does not define what has to be budged and does not clarify the 'subject' or the 'object' of the verb. It is not defined whether *budge* implies carrying or pushing something forward. Had such information been present, it is more likely that the testees would have guessed successfully whether this verb could occur with *gear*. The COBUILD definition was thus:

2 If something or someone will not **budge** or if you cannot **budge** them, they will not move at all from a particular place or position.

Nothing in the definition says that one cannot *budge a gear.* Not surprisingly, the percentage gain made on this expression was low, i.e. 31% and 25% COB and LDO answers, respectively, were of the correct-wrong type. The same is true of other expressions such as *thrust a missile, conquer a yawn*, etc.. All lacked sufficient collocational information to help users avoid misusing the target words.

It appears that not only definitions of made-up examples let users down, but also some definitions of correct expressions were similarly confusing (see table 6.4 where testees performed badly with the correct phrases). Many definitions of correct phrases seem to offer little help. If we consider the LDOCE definition of *relinquish the floor*, we have little guidance in recognising whether this is an acceptable phrase. The definition of *floor* does not show that this word can occur with *relinquish.* Also, the usage of *floor* may well be unspecified:

4 [*the* ÷ *S*] the part of the parliament, council, building, public meeting place, etc., where those attending sit: The member for Brighton has the floor. (= has the right to speak, so others must not interrupt)| After the visiting speaker has finished, I shall ask for questions from the floor. (= from those listening).

It is not clear how LDOCE-compilers have interpolated the meaning of *floor* as "the right to speak" in this context. This sense was inadequately added to the previous sense "the place where some people sit in a parliament, council, etc.". It is likely that this sudden change in the explanation might have confused the testees and consequently did not help them towards

finding the right meaning. It may have been more helpful if the compilers have given this sense a separate definition. Article **4** could have contained two relating senses **4**[1] (the attendants in a parliamentary, council, etc. meeting) and **4**[2] (the right to speak). In COBUILD, the meaning of *floor* is plainly stated. However, both dictionaries fail to establish whether it is permissible to say: *relinquish the floor*. COBUILD merely states that one can *relinquish* as in "authority", "responsibility" or a "job" while LDOCE left the choice open to readers. Testees had to guess that *floor* was covered by those words included by the term "etc". LDOCE definition: [to give up (power, position, a claim, etc.)]. I would suggest that such ambiguity resulted in low scores. Presumably, COBUILD information was more helpful than LDOCE since 50% of COB answers to this expression were of the type wrong-correct compared to 25% for LDO.

Possibly, the inclusion of one word definitions may have contributed to users making wrong judgements. It might have been difficult for testees to decide which of the collocates of the synonym would occur with the defined word, e.g. LDOCE defines *administer* as:

2 [(to)] *fml* to give; DISPENSE: to administer punishment|

This definition is ambiguous because it does not indicate the elements that *administer* encompasses. If "give" is sufficient to explain the meaning of *administer*, then it would sound right to use *administer* with books, money, bedrooms, laughs, our life, parties, lunch, etc.. No help was given to users to distinguish which collocate of "give" could not be used with *administer*. This form of definition may account for the low level of improvement

achieved by LDO, i.e. 25%. Possibly, those testees who correctly answered took for granted that "give" was interchangeable with *administer*. Thus, they considered *administer an injection* correct because one can "give an injection".

Where the information provided was clear and concise and users could predict the acceptability of the expression, the two groups did well. For example, in *coach a team*, 87% and 81% COB and LDO, respectively, answered correctly.

The two EFL specialists agreed that dictionary entries were not always helpful in judging the stimuli (see table 6.3). The judges stated that 55% of COBUILD and 75% of LDOCE definitions contained no information at all to help users judge the acceptability of the expressions. In cases where the evaluators' answers were "yes", there was only a hint under one of the components of the expressions. Possibly, this was unhelpful. However, COBUILD information appeared more often to be somewhat clearer than LDOCE. This may account for the slightly higher scores made by COB with correct phrases. The information provided for made-up expressions, in both dictionaries, was not clear enough to prevent learners from making wrong guesses.

This argument about the clarity of the definitions deserves further exploration. We still have no idea how subjects went about their task and the way they handled the definitions in order to make judgements. In consequence, I drew evidence for this from oral report data. These data seem to support the above assertions and provide an insight into testees' thought-process.

I was surprised to find that none of the subjects who provided the oral data risked judging the expressions without reading the definitions. Subjects were skimming all the senses under each entry even if they felt they knew the meaning of the components of the expression. They stopped and pondered wherever they passed by a meaning that seemed related to the target expression. They sometimes read this definition twice or more including the examples. After reading the whole explanation, they usually turned back to the sense they suspected as the target one to make sure that it fitted the source text. They inked under words that helped them form their judgements. Once certain that they had grasped the clues, they gave their responses.

Sometimes, subjects could not deduce the correct answer from explanations of both types of expression. For example, STldo was unable to judge *crush resistance* correctly. This was because *crush* was defined as occurring with "human beings not abstract nouns". Subjects complained of the absence of some information which could help them answer questions especially with the made-up phrases. Examining the definition of *experience*, for instance, STldo complained that no example at all existed to tell him what kind of verb could occur with *experience*. He questioned whether *experience* could occur with "increase", "widen" or "enlarge". Although such information was not present in COBUILD, STcob was happy with the definition of *augment*, i.e. "make larger by adding something" and correctly linked *augment experience*. Again, where information was lacking, subjects made random guesses. Possibly, this accounts for the poor results above.

The following two excerpts about the expression *draw up an agenda* illustrate the way

subjects handled the information and made their judgements.

(STcob reads the source text)
- *Do not forget to draw up the agenda for our next meeting.*
- *Draw up the agenda, erm, yeh.*
- *I think I know the meaning of agenda* (he reads the definition)
- *A list of items to be discussed at a meeting ... ok*
(he reads the definition of the second word)
- *Draw up a document, list, or plan, you prepare it ...*
- *Prepare! Ok.* (He underlines what he has read)
- *When a car or other vehicle ... not the one*
- *If you draw up a chair ... not the one*
- *If you draw yourself up ... no*
- *It should be the first one "prepare".*
- *Well. I think "yes". It is correct. Why not?*

(STIdo reads the source text)
- *Do not forget to draw up the agenda for our next meeting.*
- *Erm, erm: Draw up the agenda!*
(he reads the definition of *agenda*)
- *Agenda a list of the subjects to be dealt with or talked about at a meeting: what is on the agenda for this afternoon? .... (he goes on reading the examples)*
- *Let's see draw up*: (he reads)
1 .to prepare and usually put into written form... ok.
2. to arrive at a certain point and stop... No.
3. to place in prepared order... No.
4. draw oneself up to make oneself stand straight ... No.
- *Erm, erm.* (he goes back to the first sense)
- *Prepare and put into written form?*
- *Ah, this is the one. But, can it come with "agenda"? Well, I know that we can say: Prepare a plan. Prepare a plan, prepare an agenda.*
- *Erm, I think it is ok.*
- *Yes, it is correct.*
- *If we put this in the sentence, it will be: Prepare and put it into written form. Do not forget to prepare the agenda.*

I have noticed that subjects sometimes referred to the source text while reading the explanation. Possibly, two reasons account for this. First, subjects might have forgotten the

context in which the expression occurred; therefore, they went back to the sentence to remind themselves. Secondly, they might want to check the meaning they found against the sentence provided. This behaviour is in line with Bogaards' (1993) 'dictionary-use model' where users had to check the relevant information they selected with the context under consideration. This phenomenon is illustrated below:

(STIdo reads the source text)
- *In such a meeting you cannot keep talking for a long time; you should relinquish the floor as soon as you can.*
- *Relinquish the floor! what does this mean?*
- *Ok.*
- *Ok. Let us see floor.*
(he reads all the senses, then he moves to the definition of relinquish and reads it twice)
- *Relinquish: to give up ...*
- *Let us go back to the sentence:*
- *In such a meeting ...* (he reads the whole sentence)
-*You should relinquish the floor as soon as possible!*
- *Relinquish the floor?*
- *Erm. Ah. I am unable to say anything.*
- *Let me read the definition of "relinquish" again.*
(He reads the definition again).
- *Ha! "Relinquish" can be used with power, claim, control.*
- *No. No "relinquish the floor" exists here.*
(he starts reading the definition of "floor" again and ponders on sense 4 a for sometime)
- *The part of a parliament, council, ...* (he refers to the source text again)
- *You should relinquish the floor as soon as you can* (he goes back to the definition)
- *Erm. Has the floor, has the right to speak.*
- *Relinquish the floor?*
- *I would say that it is not correct because, again, the dictionary definitions for both "relinquish" and "floor" did not mention anything about this expression and I have never heard it before so I would assume that it is not correct.*

It was interesting to note that STIdo judged some expressions, then sometimes tried to verify the definition against the source text to make sure his judgement was sensible (see his data about *draw up an agenda* above). After concluding that *override a veto* was correct,

STldo observes:

I think this is correct as well because 'override' means to take no notice of and here we can say: the U.S.A. took no notice of the Security Council's veto ...

Subjects appeared to underline all the words that co-occurred with the 'noun' or 'verb'. For example, reading the explanation of "complaint", STldo highlighted "make a complaint", "lodge a complaint", etc.. Also, upon reading the explanation of "swallow anger", he marked "control", "suppress" and "react with" at the entry for *anger* and "food", "pride" and "feelings" at the entry for *swallow*. Sometimes, however, it appeared that subjects did not underline anything. This may suggest that they were unable to find anything helpful in the explanation.

Three interesting pieces of evidence emerged from the verbal report data. First, subjects were searching for the expressions in question in the explanation. If these could not be found, they sometimes considered the expression to be wrong. For *register a complaint*, STldo says that although the explanation of *complaint* gave similar examples, he does not think that it was possible to say *register a complaint* because if the expression was correct it would be there. STcob made a similar complaint. This may alert dictionary-compilers to the fact that they should include these phrases.

Secondly, subjects were mostly reading the entry for the 'noun' first even if this entry was presented second. This may support my view that dictionary users usually need to know what can be done to the 'noun'? It is likely that they thought that they could reduce their search by checking the entry for the noun first. This behaviour supports Hausmann's argument about

entering collocational information at the entry for the noun.

Thirdly, the illustrative sentences were all-important. These seemed to help users judge some expressions. STldo, for instance, judges *hatch a conspiracy* correctly because of the conclusion he drew from the example "They hatched a plot to murder the king". However, sometimes the examples seemed to play a misleading role. This was true in the made-up expressions where the examples might have encouraged subjects to conclude that the expressions were correct. For example, STldo concludes that one could say *conquer a yawn* because of the example mentioned under "conquer":

She conquered her fear and picked up the enormous spider.

STcob also concluded that one can say *increase war* on the strength of the example:

Crime has increased by three per cent in the last year ...

where he considers *war* to be similar to "crime". Subjects' emphasis on examples supports my suggestion that information about VN phrases is best placed in the examples.

Findings from the verbal report data are interesting. They give enlightenment about the way dictionary users handled dictionary definitions to extract collocational information. Users might have read the definitions carefully and pondered upon whether the information present could show that the expression they were considering was acceptable. Sometimes, they said

that the expressions were wrong because they were missing. Such examples may well have played a role in subjects' responses. STcob and STldo were both desperately searching for clues in the examples to judge expressions.

In conclusion, the above study considered whether EFL learners could judge the correctness of VN phrases by using dictionary explanation. Two types of phrases were provided, i.e. correct and made-up phrases. The results proved interesting. Mostly, subjects were unable to judge the expressions correctly. Success achieved following dictionary consultation was very small. This applies to both made-up and correct expressions. I believe that failure was due to the lack of sufficient clues to help subjects obtain the correctness of expressions. The oral report data showed that respondents examined the information provided in the entries carefully before judging the explanation. It is likely that if more information had been present, subjects would have less difficulty in judging the phrases correctly. While dictionary use sometimes appeared effective, no significant difference was demonstrated between the definitions in the two dictionaries.

6.4. Study two

By using *etc* in definitions, EFL dictionaries place a burden on users as they have to deduce the word for themselves. It makes the language learning process tedious and complicated especially when they encounter the target word for the first time. They have to understand the target word and try to extrapolate from the definition a replacement for *etc*. (See above and chapter 5, noting that the evidence was not cogent).

In this study, I intend to investigate how EFL learners handle definitions containing *etc*. I want to discover whether such definitions help them solve collocation problems. To accomplish this, it is necessary to define the meaning of the term *etc* and examine its application in MDs.

6.4.1. Etc in dictionaries

Etc is widely used in all types of MDs, both general and specialised. It is vital to define what lexicographers mean by this term. In the case of The Longman Language Activator, LLA, it is defined thus "... used at the end of a short list to mean 'and others of a similar kind'...". While generally true, this definition is sometimes at variance with reality in some specific cases. The COBUILD definition is: "that there are other items, events or situations which you could mention if you had the time and space, ...". I believe this to be more accurate since it expresses well what *etc* could cover.

Etc tends to account for several linguistic functions. Its most common function in EFL dictionaries is to represent words that are the 'subject' or 'object' of the defined verb. Likewise, it can represent the 'noun' and 'verb' or 'adjective' that can be qualified by a certain 'adjective' or 'adverb', respectively. *Etc* fulfils many other functions, but I intend to deal specifically with cases where it denotes nouns functioning as objects of the target verbs, e.g.

sever *v* to bring to an end (a relationship, etc.); ... LDOCE

We need to discover on what basis *etc* is chosen. It appears that most dictionary-makers have

no set policy in its application. To accomplish this, we need to examine those items that precede *etc*. On examining some random entries, I found that some dictionaries, e.g. COBUILD presented genus words or superordinates in the definitions and gave some actual collocations in the examples. I assume those lexicographers expected EFL learners to provide the co-hyponyms of the former words unaided. Krishnamurthy, personal communication, observed that when the criterion of classifying collocations under a genus proved impossible, COBUILD used *etc* to represent items that can be used in this context.

In the above, dictionary-compilers believe the range of collocates to be too large and diffuse for inclusion. However, this is not always true, as in ALD and LDOCE. Sometimes, definitions contain both genus words and single items simultaneously. Such approaches may be ambiguous and counter-productive (see below).

The average use of *etc* ranges between three and seven occasions per page but MDs vary considerably in the number of times they apply *etc* to definitions. To establish a rough estimate in EFL dictionaries, I examined the entries at letter A in the three dictionaries and extracted the verbs whose definitions contained *etc* in the object position (see appendix 7).

Among the 66 verbs recorded, 44 are in ALD, 22 in LDOCE and only 14 in COBUILD. This reflects COBUILD policy of frequently abandoning traditional lexicography techniques. Occasionally, more than one sense of the same verb is defined by means of *etc*. I observed that only *administer* had *etc* in all dictionaries. This reveals the disparity of lexicographers in the verbs they define without *etc*. This supports my contention that it is possible to

satisfactorily present clear definitions without using *etc* (see chapter 7).

There are two main advantages of using *etc*: to conserve space and to indicate other lexemes. However, I believe its use has two enormous disadvantages. It may baffle users as they cannot always ascertain the words it replaces. In addition, leaving collocates of some verbs open to inference, encourages some learners to use unacceptable collocates with the target verb. Hence, they confuse the usage of the defined word with that of its near-synonyms. I now intend to examine this process in greater detail.

6.4.2. The study

6.4.2.1. Aim

The purpose of this study is threefold:

1. To establish whether learners can provide some collocates that would replace *etc* in some verb definitions. Bearing in mind the findings of chapter 5 and the previous study, I anticipate that it will pose problems and confuse users. I believe that leaving the collocations of some verbs open to inference entices learners to adopt unacceptable collocates with the target verb.
2. To ascertain whether dictionary definitions help learners avoid nouns which cannot be used with the defined verb. I think users misjudge the words that can collocate with the defined word owing to the lack of definition clarity.
3. To discover whether users make use of kidrule when handling definitions to infer the correct collocates of the defined word. I propose to answer this question by means of

verbal report data. The latter will provide an insight into the process of completing the test and giving a real account of ARA behaviour.

To answer the above questions, I shall give users some definitions containing *etc* and ask them to fill the gap left by *etc* with some collocates of the defined word. They will also be asked to identify the words (three target words and one distractor) which will collocate with the defined word.

6.4.2.2. Materials

In this study, 20 verb definitions were chosen from LDOCE to be the stimuli. All verbs were low-frequency items according to Thorndike and Lorge (1944). They were chosen because they contained *etc*. This *etc* stood for some nouns that could be the 'objects' of the verbs defined. Each *etc* could be replaced by at least five nouns other than those in the explanation.

The stimuli were used in two tests. The first test (A) was designed to establish whether non-natives can replace *etc* in definitions by some collocates of the target verb. The testees' task was to write three more nouns that could be used with the target verb in the space provided. The second test (B) was designed to establish whether EFL learners can extrapolate from dictionary explanations which cannot occur with the defined verb. These verbs were exactly the same as in test A. In each case, the definition was followed by four phrases, where each phrase contained the target word combined with a noun. Three expressions were correct and only one, a distractor, was wrong. Wherever practical, the distractor was standardised to be syntactically and semantically similar to the other three

correct items. However, sometimes, this criterion was difficult to meet, in which case the distractor was not the odd one out. Phrases in random fashion and the collocations used here were not included in the explanation. Subjects were assumed to know the meaning of distractors. Testees were asked for Yes/No answers (see appendixes 8.1 and 8.2).

6.4.2.3. Subjects

Two groups participated: an experimental group of 25 ARA (similar to Study one above) and a control group of 22 native speakers. The latter were studying various courses at Swansea University. Meara (1992a) was used to choose a homogeneous and able group of testees. Subjects did test (301). Their score on this test was (85.9, Sd 6.5) (max.100).

6.4.2.4. Procedure

Instructions were written in English and ARA completed their tests in regular school hours on a single day. Testees completed in their own time and a supervised break occurred between tests. ENG were unsupervised and completed at their convenience.

A list was compiled of almost all the collocations used to substitute for *etc* in all cases. This was achieved by scrutinising about 16 general MDs (see bibliography). In addition, some collocations were elicited from three native speakers. Three EFL specialists were consulted to verify the correctness of all collocations. I omitted any word that the judges unanimously rejected.

As to the first issue, all answers in test A were checked against the above list. Answers not

occurring in the list were handed to two raters with EFL teaching experience to decide their acceptability. An interrater reliability of around 97% agreement was obtained. Here, the number of correct collocates was computed for all subjects (see appendix 13). Each correct answer was awarded one point. The score analysed was the percentage correct.

Regarding the second issue, I was interested in evaluating subjects' ability to identify the unacceptable collocates. Here, i.e. test B, I could not just award one point to each correct answer because some subjects might get high scores by random guessing. Allowing the wrong answers without being penalised would have increased the proportion of correct answers and thereby lent more superficial credence to the mean score. A different scoring method was devised to account for the reliability of subjects' performance and avoid the disadvantage of giving one point to each correct answer. Three points were given to each unacceptable collocate identified as wrong and one point was deducted for each unacceptable collocate considered correct. This method, while stringent, is objective and reliable. The points were computed to establish mean scores (see below and appendix 13).

Question three concerned testee behaviour. This was found by analysing subject response, reflected in the way they handled each definition. Some of ARA were asked to provide verbal report data. Three subjects volunteered in test B and provided pure 'think aloud' protocol. Subjects were trained to reflect on the test while they were completing. The latter sat alone with a tape-recorder. These data support my discussion below. Throughout the discussion, subjects are defined AA, AS and MB.

6.4.2.5. Results

The first issue was whether dictionary users could provide extra collocates of the defined verb. Mean scores for correct answers on test A are summarised in table 6.5. As anticipated, ARA results were low. I believe this indicates their difficulty in providing extra collocates of the target verbs. ENG scores were higher but their performance was not impressive. Possibly, this task was difficult even for ENG.

Table 6.5. Mean correct answers on test A (max.60)

	ARA	ENG
mean	18.9	28.6
Sd	5.6	4.9

A t-test showed that a significant difference existed between the two groups' scores ($t=6.4$, $p<.001$ with 45 df). Apparently, ENG achieved a better score than ARA.

The second issue concerned whether dictionary users could collocate with the defined verb (see Table 6.6). Unlike ENG, ARA did not perform any better on this test. This may suggest that test B was much more difficult than test A. It seems that native speakers were more capable of judging the collocates of verbs than providing them. Memory could have influenced this result. The table shows a skewed sample of ARA. Displaying a larger figure for Sd with ARA could account for the wide variation in ARA scores. Several subjects failed totally, which could be due to the scoring method penalising subjects' random answers.

Table 6.6. Mean correct scores on test B (max.60)

	ARA	ENG
mean	15.0	43.7
Sd	10.1	6.0

Submitting the scores to a t-test, a highly significant difference appeared to exist between the performance of the two groups ($t=11.6$, $p<.001$ with 45 df). Obviously, ARA score was disappointingly lower than that of ENG.

The last issue concerning subject behaviour will be covered below.

Apparently, the above results confirm my suspicions that ARA could perform successfully. Both test results were low. Most EFL learners seemed to have difficulty in providing collocates of some words. Iqbal (1987) found that even the commonest kind of collocation posed difficulty for users. I suspect this was due to the lack of clarity in the definitions and manner in which they were formulated. Below, I shall discuss the poor performance of ARA by examining the strategies they applied.

6.4.2.6. Discussion

Results showed ARA encountering particular problems with providing collocates. However, we know that other EFL learners faced similar problems. Bahns and Eldaw (1993) found that German advanced EFL students encountered similar difficulties in a translation and cloze tasks.

Comparing results with those of ARA, two facts become obvious. First, ENG know a wider variety of collocations than ARA. Secondly, ENG can more extensively extrapolate what can and cannot be used with defined words. However, ENG results were not very high especially on test A. Possibly, two reasons account for their rather low scores. First, the test may have been hard because it tested their memories. I noticed some students, unlike ARA, failed to write three collocates for each verb. It appears that they wrote only what sprang to mind first and neglected to think of other collocates. One subject informed me that he left some spaces because these words were not in his vocabulary.

Secondly, subjects possibly wrote the collocates without reading the definitions. In some cases students provided collocates of another meaning of the target verb. These occurred particularly in the polysemous verbs *administer*, *dissolve* and *peg*. Some wrote "oath" and "drug"; "Nitrate" and "salt"; "tent" and "clothes", respectively. I excluded these as not applying to the meaning in question.

To account for ARA low scores, we have to take a close look at the definitions and see how subjects handled these definitions. My discussions will be supported by excerpts from the verbal report data.

After scanning the definitions in question, one can argue that these can be ambiguous for two reasons. First, the meaning of some words is explained by a synonym, i.e. one-word definition. This could have led users to think that this synonym was interchangeable with the defined verb. In consequence, they might have adopted kidrule. In this case, they ignored

most of the information in the definition and provided collocates of the synonym inappropriate for the target verb. *Administer* defined as "manage" or "direct" may be ambiguous since not everything one directs can be administered and vice versa. This may have confused some subjects and encouraged them towards wrong conclusions. 24% ARA provided wrong collocations on test A. In test B, 40% considered "talk" a correct collocate of *administer*.

The second possible reason for failure are collocates dissimilar to those included in the definition, e.g. *misjudge* is defined as [to judge (a person, action, time, distance, etc.) wrongly...]. The collocates that can be added here have little connection with those in the parenthesis. This contradicts the LLA definition of *etc.* LLA implies "period" and "duration" are similar to "time"; "deed" and "endeavour" are similar to "action", etc.. These are unacceptable collocates of *misjudge*. In test A, 48% ARA presented wrong collocations; 64% were unable to recognise "competition" as a wrong collocate of *misjudge* in test B.

The above possibly encouraged dictionary users to provide faulty combinations. They may have confused them about which item to collocate with the verb. On examination of subject behaviour, I noticed two distinct patterns. I suspect they were a direct result of causes that made the definitions unclear. In both patterns, subject performance displayed their application of kidrule. Subjects were focusing on one part of the definition, either the one-word definition or the collocates in parenthesis. The behaviour of the students who provided the verbal report data verified this finding. I should now like to examine the patterns of behaviour exhibited by subjects.

Pattern one involved subject concentration on the first part of the definition. This pattern, observed in both tests, was governed by the one-word, synonym, defining method. Here, subjects obviously applied the kidrule strategy. They seemed to take the synonym or select inappropriate fragments of the definition and ignored the rest. Two things characterised this behaviour. First, subjects provided collocates that could occur with the synonym given in the explanation. Secondly, subjects ignored the information given in and after the parenthesis most of the time. AA typically manifested these characteristics. Responding to *amalgamate*, some subjects wrote "new friends", "ladies", etc.. Clearly, these subjects were satisfied with one segment of the definition, i.e. "join" or "unite" and considered it the exact meaning of the verb. Likewise with *axe*, the definition "put an end to" or "break up" encouraged some subjects to give the collocates "problem" and "event". This interpretation was supported by AA and MB behaviour on test B. After reading the definition of *dissolve*, MB said: *Dissolve a battle, yes! Because the battle can be ended or break up. So yes, you can dissolve a battle.*

Some testees interpreted *fulfil* to mean "carry out". This might have encouraged them to think that "plan", "project", etc. were among its collocates. AA deduced that *fulfil a strategy* was correct because *you can say carry out a strategy, so you can fulfil a strategy.* Other students took it for granted that the meaning of *fulfil* was "obey", thereby answering "father" and "mother". This highlights the danger of merging two similar senses in one definition, as in LDOCE. In test A and B, 36% and 76% ARA responses, respectively, were incorrect

Ignoring parenthesis information could sometimes deceive. Some subjects understood *contravene* solely to mean "act in opposition" or "break". In consequence, 76% ARA

provided wrong collocates on test A and 36% acknowledged "enemy" as a correct collocate of *contravene* on test B. Again, responding to *contravene*, AA replies: *Erm, to act in opposition, to go against! Contravene a statement? No! No, one cannot contravene a statement*. (Possibly, he felt it is wrong to act in opposition to a statement). He continues: *Contravene an enemy, yes! One can act in opposition to an enemy*. Similarly, MB says: *Corroborate a habit; support a habit; erm, yes! One can corroborate a habit of his son to develop his skills*. Possibly, had subjects payed attention to the collocates included between the brackets, they might have recognised their mistake.

Behaviour pattern two involved emphasis on the collocates in parenthesis and in the example usually ignoring the other information most of the time. Possibly, subjects only focused on the collocations included and ignored everything else because their task was to provide and judge some collocations. In test A, subjects were providing either possible synonyms or hyponyms of the nouns between the brackets. In test B, subjects possibly matched the given nouns with what existed between the brackets. If a relation was found between them, the target phrase would be considered correct and vice versa. This pattern of behaviour was possibly more helpful than the first one especially in test A. The following examples may serve to prove this.

Many subjects gave "hospital" and "university" as co-hyponyms of "affairs of government" in the entry for *administer*. AS says: *Administer a university, erm*, (he goes back to the definition) *the affairs of government, yes! I think universities are to do with government.* This was repeated with *inculcate* where words like "wisdom" and "honesty" were provided.

Both words are almost co-hyponyms of "principle" which was included in the explanation. Many students gave "situation" as a collocate of *prejudice* as a possible synonym of "case" which was included in the entry. AS considers "situation" correct because *it is similar to "case", why not? Yes, situation is the same as "case".* Many subjects succeeded when they provided "aid", "assistance", "service" and "support" as synonyms of "help" because all these occurred with *solicit.*

Unfortunately, some of those assumedly near-synonyms or hyponyms provided by subjects were unacceptable collocates of the target verb. The following examples may clarify this point. "Task", given by many testees, might have been written as a synonym of "job" in the case of *axe*. "Request", "desire" and "order" and "system" were presumably written as synonyms of "demand" and "rule", respectively, in the entry for *comply*. Sometimes, these false synonyms might have been given because the testees did not learn how to discriminate between these words and use them correctly. For example, responding to *delegate* and *relinquish*, some testees wrote "force", "strength", "energy" and "ability" as possible synonyms of "power", a collocate of both verbs. The testees might have thought that all these words could be used interchangeably.

It is likely that some subjects might have not recognised the exact sense of some words in the parenthesis which was intended in this context. They, therefore, mentioned synonyms of the sense they had in mind. For example, "game" was given as a synonym of "play" in the entry for *rehearse*. Users have to know most of the senses of those words in parenthesis in order to be able to provide suitable synonyms in particular contexts.

Like the subjects who only focused on the first part of the definition, subjects who concentrated on the information in parenthesis alone were not always successful. This held true where the collocates provided in test B could not be classified either as synonyms or hyponyms of the words given in the definition. In such a case, most subjects failed to judge these expressions given in test B. For *misjudge*, the four collocates provided in test B were "speed", "competition", "motive" and "opinion". Here, most subjects were unable to answer correctly because they might have not found any link between these words and "person", "action", "time" and "distance" given in the definition of *misjudge*. Only 36% ARA recognised that "competition" could not collocate with *misjudge*. Similarly, AS considers *contravene a statement* wrong *because a statement is not like a rule or a law* (AA considered it wrong for a different reason, see above). AS also considers *corroborate a belief* wrong claiming that "belief" is not similar to "opinion" or "idea" which were present in the explanation. The same applies to "quality" and "feeling"; "prophecy"; "habit"; "motive" and "opinion"; "habit" and "attention" which were not similar to any word in the explanation of *embody, fulfil, inculcate, misjudge, relinquish* and *solicit*, respectively.

In a few instances, subjects seemed to misunderstand the meaning of the definition. It was likely that these definitions were not clear. MB was unable to tell which word could occur with *embody*. He says:

> *a feeling cannot be embodied, erm ..., I mean, the feeling is not a physical form that can be seen or noticed. Also a theory, it cannot be seen ...*

Even some native speakers did not do well with these words. Responding to *embody*, 45.5% ENG were unable to provide any correct collocate of this verb. Again, 41% ENG were unable to tell that "speech" was a wrong collocate of *embody* compared to 64% ARA. This

may confirm the point made by one subject that he did not use some of these words very often.

Besides what has been mentioned above, other factors might have slightly contributed to the low scores made by ARA. First, subjects might have found the test difficult especially as the stimuli were low-frequency items. Secondly, interference from the subjects' L1 equivalent translations might have encouraged subjects to do badly on both tests.

To conclude, this study has attempted to answer three questions. First, whether EFL learners could add some noun collocates to replace *etc* in some MDs verb entries. Secondly, whether dictionary explanations could help these EFL learners identify the words that could not occur with these verbs. Evidently, EFL learners failed to provide some correct nouns that could occur with the target verbs. Also, it was hard for them to recognise what could not collocate with these verbs. Subjects were found to accept many unacceptable collocates of the defined verbs. Without any doubt, dictionary entries with *etc* leave EFL learners in too much doubt about the scope of the words that can collocate with the defined word.

The third issue concerned the strategies adopted by subjects. It appeared that the kidrule strategy was adopted by testees quite often. This was reflected by subjects' concentration on certain fragments of the definition. These fragments were sometimes the synonyms provided in the explanation or the collocates in parenthesis. It seems obvious that the way the definitions were formulated encouraged users to adopt the kidrule strategy in fulfilling the task assigned to them. Unfortunately, this strategy was faulty and unhelpful most of the time.

6.5. Conclusion

The findings from the two studies clearly showed that collocation was problematic for ARA. Dictionary definitions did not help learners solve their difficulties in using collocations. This is because there is not sufficient semantic information in dictionary definitions, at least not in the form that EFL learners could understand and use. EFL learners could not judge collocations from the definitions of their two elements. This stems from the lack of sufficient collocational clues and an absence of selectional restrictions which can show what can(not) collocate with the defined word. Therefore, EFL learners were confusing correct collocations with wrong ones.

It appeared that the way the definitions were formulated had affected EFL learners' approach to the information provided. Learners were focusing on one segment of the definition. This approach was misleading most of the time. This resulted in subjects misinterpreting the meaning and subsequently providing wrong collocations of the target word.

In the light of the results obtained in this chapter, I can argue that defining by means of synonyms or 'etc' is misleading. There is a need for a feasible solution to resolve this problem and help EFL learners use the defined words correctly. I think that dictionary-makers can do two things to reduce this problem. First, they have to provide all the words which can occur with the defined item (cf. Iqbal). Of course, some dictionary-makers may object to this suggestion under the pretext of being space-consuming. Here, we are not interested in verbs with senses which literally have almost any direct object. Rather, we are interested in the figurative senses of these verbs. A verb like "explode", for

example, may occur with many concrete direct objects. However, the transferred sense "show to be false, or no longer true" can only collocate with words like (myth, belief, idea, notion, rumour and theory) (See Cowie, 1981 and Svensén, 1993).

Possibly, dictionary-makers can analyse a huge corpora of EFL composition (see McNeill, 1994 and Milton and Tsang, 1993) to unveil those prevalent collocational errors so that such errors can be accounted for in EFL dictionaries.

Secondly, a new type of entry which can help EFL learners use the defined word correctly has to be devised. Such an entry has, possibly, to depart from the traditional way of defining words and provide the information which EFL learners need preventing them from misinterpreting and abusing the defined word. Brackets, which are sorely inadequate, have to be removed. Also, the entry, i.e. explanation, has to be constructed in such a way that kidrule is precluded. This topic will be examined more fully in the next chapter.

Chapter seven
The usability of tailor-made entries

7.1. Introduction

From the evidence presented in chapters 5 and 6, current dictionary explanations would appear not to be very helpful in assisting users to use words in the right context. They offered users very little help in producing acceptable sentences and deducing the target word's collocates. 44% of the sentences produced in chapter 5 were erroneous. Also, the results from chapter 6 confirm that current dictionary explanations were not promoting full understanding of word usage. It is expected that ARA would not have produced a large number of errors if they had explanations that catered for their needs. Therefore, I have decided to follow up the study in chapter 5 by creating new entries that would make up for the vital absent information. I expect that these entries would reduce ARA mistakes to a minimum. This study compares the effectiveness of the newly-designed format and the traditional dictionary entries by involving EFL learners in a sentence production task.

Before embarking on the study in question, it is necessary to consider the limitations of dictionary definitions and suggest ways of minimising the deficit. I will give some recommendations which I believe will help users more effectively.

7.2. Traditional vs. revised definitions: problems & solutions

Before creating new definitions, one should establish what is critical to the use of target words. This can be achieved by locating users' difficulties with traditional definitions. Possibly, these difficulties occurred because of dictionary-compilers' lack of insight into user'

needs (Hatherall, 1984). In chapter 5, some suggestions were made for the possible causes of errors. Some of them were confirmed in chapter 6. The following four definition problems were discovered.

The first definition problem was the absence of words that usually occurred with the defined lexeme. This tended to encourage learners to collocate with the target word wrongly, e.g. "The ... road **winded** strongly". It is possible that such a mistake would not occur if some 'combinational characteristics', (Svensén, 1993), were included in the definition. As in chapter 6, most learners could not provide correct collocates of the defined word.

The second definition problem was the inherent weakness of the 'using of synonyms'. Jain (1981) and Cop (1990:39) argue that defining by means of synonyms is a dangerous practice because "students will tend to transfer the typical contextual patterns of a word to its synonyms". Empirical evidence (e.g. Higa, 1963 and Linnarud, 1983) showed that learners did not acquire synonyms easily. Definitions, however, do not contain clear-cut guidelines regarding discriminating synonyms especially as some items are synonymous in some contexts but not in others.

The third problem was the 'structure of definitions'. Sometimes, some components of the definition were excluded between brackets without any clue as to how they could be used. Hanks (1988:43) observes that

> Putting a superordinate direct object in brackets and using funny syntax may salve the lexicographer's conscience, but it does not add to the explanatory power, and it does not

move the information to the right side of the equation.

In some cases, definitions include disjointed parts that give more than one meaning of the defined word. LDOCE defines *fulfil* as "carry out ...; obey". This 'multiple-bite strategy' could have encouraged dictionary users to apply the kidrule strategy.

The fourth problem was the 'ambiguity of some definitions' which often lacked sufficient information to develop a full implication and representation of the defined word (see definition of *bag* below).

Before describing the new definitions, two points should be remembered. First, the above problems are not mutually exclusive. Some definitions may have exhibited more than one problem. Secondly, these problems might not be exhaustive. Possibly, other definitions may have generated problems other than those already outlined. Having identified definitional problems, I can develop certain principles for devising new entries that can possibly resolve learners' difficulties. The characteristics of these entries and the principles upon which they would be based are as follows. These principles are to some extent modelled on McKeown (1993). (For further information on methods of explaining meanings, see Scholfield 1981 and 1982c).

Provide collocations. For a definition to be optimally productive, it should include some of the defined word's collocates. This is partly due to the fact that "collocation has an important role to play in the creation of meaning", Lewis (1993:82). Among the variety of knowledge a learner needs in a vocabulary item is its collocational probabilities (Richards, 1976 and

Taylor, 1983). More importantly, words in the mental lexicon are stored with related meanings, i.e. associative bonds and collocates (Henning, 1973). Thus, providing collocations may help dictionary users learn the target word (Herbst, 1987). Attention here should be equally focused on the collocates that occur to the right and left of the target word.

The revised entries contained many possible collocates of the defined words, covering: 'subject', 'object' and 'intensifier' positions, wherever possible. The definition below has most of the collocates of *wind*. Naturally, this includes grammatical collocations, i.e. prepositions.

> **wind** *v* turn or move here and there in a curving, twisting or spiral manner. Usually, WIND is used with adverbs like: ENDLESSLY, UNPREDICTABLY and RANDOMLY. Also, WIND is used with prepositions like: BETWEEN, UP, ACROSS and THROUGH.

To some extent, this helped avoid using some misleading, abstruse codes, as often happens in dictionaries. Below is the LDOCE entry for *wind*:

> **wind** [I + *adv/prep*] to follow a twisting course, with many changes of direction: The path winds through the woods and up the side of the mountain.

The above definition indicates that the verb occurs with adverbs, but these were absent. Nothing is mentioned to indicate whether "unpredictably" or "endlessly" are relevant.

Avoid one-word definitions unless the definiendum and definiens are interchangeable. Definitions created to help avoid mistakes should not contain words which do not bear the entire meaning of the defined word. The help that a synonym offers for decoding could possibly be replaced by a clearer definition. The new definition of *fish*, for example, was a

greater departure from the LDOCE definition:

> **fish** *v* try to gain or obtain something like compliments, praise, information, secrets, or gossip by indirect questioning or roundabout methods.

This explanation is expected to reduce the harm that synonyms can cause to a minimum.

Draw users' attention to the whole information. To reduce the likelihood of meaning misinterpretation, I think that definitions should arouse users' curiosity and encourage them to read the full definition, rather than just one segment. I suggest that definitions should be phrased as one chunk and should not highlight one segment alone. This discourages user misinterpretation by confusing one segment as the meaning of the whole definition.

In the revised entries, attempts were made to prevent users habitually resorting to kidrule. The definitions were put in the form of full sentences. Phrases were linked in such a way that it would be difficult for users to glean the meaning unless the whole explanation was read.

Likewise, I managed to dispense with 'etc' as I believed this practice to be misleading. The revised entries attempted to present most of the words represented by 'etc' in traditional definitions. The following definition has accounted for most nouns meant by 'etc' in the COBUILD definition of *hole*:

> A **hole** in a law, theory, argument, etc is a fault or weakness that it has. N COUNT+SUPP = flaw
>
> **hole** *n* (COUNT) a serious disadvantage or weakness IN a law, theory, argument, story,

reasoning or evidence.

Avoid vagueness. To help learners use the defined word correctly, a definition should be clear and should represent its precise usage. For example, the LDOCE definition of *bag*, [to kill or catch (animals or birds)], does not include the precise usage of *bag*. However, the revised definition, "hunt wild creatures like animals, birds or fish by killing them or taking them alive for sport or food", avoids this pitfall. It shows what can be bagged and clearly states the purpose of this action.

To a large extent, the revised definitions meet Moulin's (1979:78) criterion for a good definition. Moulin envisages that a definition should be clear, accurate and complete. In addition to the above defining technique, I introduced a warning piece of information to preclude the likelihood of errors. Use of this device where necessary helps caution users against making mistakes. A slightly similar approach, though not very explicit, is now applied in the *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English*. This view is shared by Meyer (1990) who suggests the use of 'warnings' in future translation dictionaries. The respective warnings for the revised entries for *wind, fish* and *bag* are as follows:

Warning: WIND is used with words such as ROAD, PATH, RIVER, STREAM, LINE OF PEOPLE, e.g. QUEUE. Human beings cannot wind but they might follow a winding road.

Warning: FISH is different from SEARCH FOR; it usually carries a negative meaning where one uses a slightly dishonest way.

Warning: BAG cannot be used to refer to the killing of pets or to the killing of human

beings by some animals or birds.

These warnings provide users with some advice that can help them avoid potential mistakes. In *fish*, for example, users are alerted to the fact that the meaning is different from "search for".

In addition, the revised entry in each case contained two made-up examples. Such examples would provide contextual clues to compensate for the ambiguity of the definition. Fox (1987) not only argues that examples can complement definitions, but also maintains that a good example may offer better information than the definition itself. The metalanguage of the revised entries was mainly within LDOCE Controlled Defining Vocabulary of the 2000 most frequent words. Most frequent vocabulary "places much smaller cognitive demand on the learners" than infrequent vocabulary items (Coady et al., 1993:219).

In comparison, it is expected that the revised entries would be clearer and easier to comprehend than most other dictionary entries. The impact of the additional range of 'semantic valency' and warnings would make these entries a greater departure from traditional dictionary entries.

I now propose to test the effectiveness of the revised entries on EFL learners.

7.3. The study

7.3.1. Aim

The intention of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of tailor-made entries (TME).

This will be best accomplished by comparing the success of EFL learners with both traditional and revised entries. The following two issues are addressed here.

1. To ascertain whether TME can help EFL learners produce more correct sentences than traditional dictionary entries. If TME users scored more correct answers, this would mean that TME were more effective than COBUILD entries. If users of TME produced similar or fewer correct sentences than users of COBUILD, this would mean that TME did not help users make correct conclusions. Using TME, learners are expected to do better than those who use dictionary entries because TME accounted for their needs. Subsequently, TME users would produce more acceptable sentences.
2. To examine whether TME could help EFL learners produce fewer minor errors, e.g. collocational, syntactic, etc. compared with dictionary entries. If TME users produced significantly fewer errors than the users of COBUILD, this would mean that TME were more effective than COBUILD, and vice versa. Again, I anticipate TME users to produce results consistent with the above objective since most users' needs are catered for.

The results relating to these issues are reported below.

7.3.2. Materials

Being a follow-up of chapter five, 15 out of the 20 words used there were reproduced in this study. Here, I chose only the words that yielded the largest number of errors.

Two types of entries were used, TME and COBUILD entries. COBUILD was used because its users seemed to score better than LDOCE users in chapter 5. This necessitated two separate test forms, one for each type of entry. Subjects had to read the meanings and write sentences incorporating them. In these sentences, subjects had to include a new set of words. This was intended to prevent them from copying the examples in the entries. Anticipating that such words might be problematic if chosen randomly (cf. chapter 5), I selected a new set of words which were not difficult to use with the target words (see appendixes 9.1 and 9.2).

7.3.3. Subjects

The sample for this study contained 46 ARA studying at British universities who are mostly sciences postgraduates. The test forms were randomly distributed. 25 students completed the forms containing the tailor-made entries (henceforth, TMEgro). 21 students did COBUILD forms (henceforth, COBgro). To ensure that the range of language competence was about the same for both groups, subjects did Meara's (1992a) test (412). The mean scores for TMEgro and COBgro were (82.96, Sd 8.8 out of 100) and (83.59, Sd 8.6 out of 100), respectively. A t-test did not demonstrate any significant difference between the scores of the two groups ($t=.33$, $p<.746$ with 44 df).

7.3.4. Procedure

Instructions were written in English and further explanation was given in Arabic. Subjects were asked to read the definitions carefully before composing their sentences.

A total of 690 sentences were collected: 315 by COBgro and 375 by TMEgro. I asked two

native speakers to judge the use of the target words according to a three-point scale. These points were: (a) absolutely correct sentences (AC) would indicate the writers had understood the target word and used it correctly (b) completely wrong sentences (CW) would indicate the writer had misinterpreted the meaning and incorrectly used the target word and (c) other erroneous sentences (OE) would show the writer had understood the meaning but failed to use it correctly. Mostly, the judges agreed unanimously. However, in about 20 cases, the judges differed in what they considered to be OE or CW. To complete the rating, the sentences were given to a third judge using the same standard. This ensured that all sentences were categorised.

The sentences of the type OE were judged further. Three types of errors were classified: collocational, syntactic and usage. The number of errors varied considerably in both groups (see table 7.2 below).

I closely scrutinised all sentences which were categorised as erroneous. I consulted the relevant entries and attempted to put myself in the position of the user. It was necessary to establish whether the user was inattentive or whether an ambiguous entry had caused the testee to err. This is a difficult process and attempting to read into another person's mind can never be wholly accurate. However, the results gained are worthwhile. Some mistakes I believe are self-explanatory. The results of this examination are discussed in 7.3.6.

7.3.5. Results

The first issue in this study concerned whether TME would affect learners' correct sentences.

About 503 sentences were categorised as AC (see appendix 14). Only 176 sentences were produced by COBgro and 327 sentences were produced by TMEgro. About 102 CW were produced: 84 by COBgro and 18 by TMEgro. Subjects' mean scores for correct and erroneous sentences were computed (see table 7.1). As predicted, TMEgro did better than COBgro. This is reflected in the number of correct sentences they produced.

Table 7.1. Mean score for sentence categories (max.15)

	TMEgro		COBgro	
	mean	Sd	mean	Sd
AC	13.1	1.2	8.4	2.9
CW	.68	.94	4.0	2.7
OE	1.2	.66	2.6	1.6

A t-test on AC revealed a very significant effect ($t=6.31$, $p<.001$ with 44 df). Evidently, TMEgro did much better than COBgro. Thus, working with TME yielded more correct sentences. Also, a t-test showed a very significant effect for CW ($t=5.36$, $p<.001$ with 44 df). Using COBUILD called forth more completely wrong sentences than using the modified definitions.

The second issue related to the number of minor errors produced by both groups. Table 7.2 gives subjects' mean score for each type of error. It shows that COBgro made more collocational errors than TMEgro. However, it seems that TMEgro made slightly more USG errors than COBgro.

Table 7.2. Mean score for OE sentences related to groups (max.15)

	TMEgro		COBgro	
	mean	Sd	mean	Sd
COL	.32	.08	1.46	1.06
SYN	.08	.27	.42	.81
USG	.82	.88	.71	1.23

A t-test showed a significant effect for COL ($t=3.59$, $p<.001$ with 44 df). Using the revised entries resulted in fewer numbers of collocational errors. However, no significant difference appeared to exist between the two groups for either SYN ($t=1.88$, $p<.050$ with 44 df) or USG ($t=.76$, $p<.450$ with 44 df).

The results in table 7.1 bore out the prediction that EFL learners would produce more correct sentences with TME. Like McKeown (1993), the revised entries were very productive. However, the present results are slightly better than McKeown's. The difference between the correct sentences with TME and COBUILD in this study is around 30% compared to 25% in McKeown's. Similarly, table 7.2 confirms the expectation that TMEgro would make fewer collocational errors than COBgro. This proves the effectiveness and the superiority of TME to COBUILD entries.

Noticeably, the total number of correct sentences in this study is much better in comparison with those in chapter 5. Possibly, the new set of words paired with the target words might have improved the results. This confirms Scholfield's (1995) claim that using random words with the target words is a rather "unlifelike production task".

In the next section, I propose to discuss the reasons for the above results.

7.3.6. Discussion

The above results revealed that TMEgro scores for correct sentences were well above average. In an effort to establish why this should be, errors by both groups were studied and assessed. This was done to find the pros and cons of TME.

Looking closely at subject-generated sentences, I found COBgro scores for AC sentences were usually lower than TMEgro scores. COBgro appeared to make the misinterpretations anticipated above. Table 7.3 below gives the results of five prominent problematic words.

Table 7.3. % subjects' performance as to individual items

	AC		CW		OE	
	TMEgro	COBgro	TMEgro	COBgro	TMEgro	COBgro
blind	80	38	12	48	08	15
fish	76	43	00	43	24	14
go	96	33	04	33	00	34
rear	72	76	04	05	24	19
spring	84	24	08	62	08	14

From a quick look at table 7.3, we can easily observe two points. First, all words, apart from *rear*, encouraged COBgro to make more erroneous sentences than TMEgro. Secondly, TME for *fish* and *rear*, appeared to encourage users to compose more OE than CW. This suggests that these entries could mostly help users understand the meanings of the target words, but perhaps did not contain sufficient information to assist in using them correctly.

I now propose to discuss the possible causes for error in the light of the information obtained from these two types of entries.

By comparing erroneous sentences with the relevant entries, I was able to spot four possible reasons that could account for the errors. These are: presence of synonyms, unclear definitions, lack or unintelligibility of examples and lack of collocations. Generally, these agree with the defining principles outlined above. I should like to examine an instance where synonymy was problematic. The COBUILD explanation of *fish* gives the synonym "seek". Upon scrutiny of COBgro erroneous sentences about *fish*, I noticed that most errors occurred because of the synonym. The following examples illustrate this problem.

The new student in the department was **fishing** for friends.
My friend is a showy person, he always **fishes** for famousness.
My friend was **fishing** for a girlfriend.

Clearly, these examples show that COBgro focused on the synonym and used it as the target word's, *fish*, entire meaning. It is possible that this synonym sounded more concise and straightforward than the rest of the definition. In my opinion, the ambiguity of the definition led some testees to false conclusions. The definition did not give users any help with regard to the difference between these weak synonyms. Such a problem did not occur with TMEgro because TME avoided the use of synonyms. TME presented an explicit warning that *fish for* was not interchangeable with "search for". Therefore, the revised entry for *fish* might discourage TMEgro from interpreting the meaning as "search for" or "look for". However, the explanation failed to deter TMEgro from producing some sentences of the type OE (see below).

The second possible reason that accounts for some of the COBgro errors was the vague language of some definitions. This sometimes encouraged users to adopt the kidrule strategy. The COBUILD definition of *spring* produced the largest number of errors in this study. If we examine the COBUILD definition of *spring*, we can account for most of the COBgro errors with this word. The definition says:

If you **spring** some news or a surprise on someone, you tell them some unexpected news or ask them to do something that surprises them...	V + O: IF + PREP THEN on

In view of this definition, I deduce that the writers of the sentences below took the second part of the conditional sentence to be the meaning of *spring*.

She was **sprung** when he asked her: "would you marry me?".
Mary's story about her family **sprang** all of us.
Mary always **springs** her classmates when she tells them some fiction stories.

The writers appeared to ignore the condition in the first part of the explanation, thereby using *spring* incorrectly. Possibly, they interpreted the meaning to be "surprise", i.e. "to tell something unexpected". The writers of the examples above seemed not to realise the importance of the preposition ON. It is likely that they would not have missed this if ON had been highlighted alongside the headword.

In comparison, the revised entry for *spring* showed what people usually spring on others and illustrated the way such a thing could be done. Often, TMEgro used the information presented to them to the full. Their composition showed that they responded well to the

warning present in the entry for *spring*. They usually used *spring* in a fixed construction, i.e. "SPRING something ON somebody". They also appeared to benefit from the collocational information provided in the explanation. This was shown in their sentences. However, it happened that in two cases subjects seemed to misunderstand the meaning as shown in the example below.

She was **sprang** when she knew that he wanted to marry another woman.

Before moving to the next reason, one note is appropriate. Dictionary-compilers think that by presenting some codes, word usage can be made clear. In reality, this does not appear to be always true as witnessed by some COBUILD entries. In *spring*, for example, some COBgro did not bother about the information that indicated that one can "spring something on somebody" rather than "springing something or somebody". Therefore, they produced sentences like this:

Mary **springs** the news that she is leaving the country.

It is also possible that some subjects could not decipher these codes which accounts for their failures (see below).

Harry **sprang** the news of his marriage to his first wife.

The third possible reason accounting for some COBgro errors are the examples in entries.

Very often, the examples provided in COBUILD were not expressive. These did not contain sufficient clues to show users the precise usage of the target word. COBgro errors showed the ineffectiveness of some of COBUILD corpus-derived examples. This is shown by the example included for *go*:

Go is the quality of being active and ener- N UNCOUNT
getic. EG ... men like Northcliff, men of go.

Clearly, many words can replace *go* in this context. It is doubtful whether this example would offer any help in clarifying the meaning and usage of *go*. The definition should have been more precise to preclude these errors:

Children are always in a state of **go**.
Children might be characterised as creatures of **go**.

In contrast, the proportion of correct sentences for *go* by TMEgro was disproportionately high. Possibly, the examples presented in the revised entry for *go* were more expressive than those in COBUILD. It happened, however, that one subject probably could not understand the meaning. He produced the following sentence:

Let us have a **go** with the children.

Possibly, one example is not sufficient to convey the right usage and contextualise the defined word. COBUILD sometimes did not provide any example. In *blind*, for example, there are no illustrative sentences to show how this meaning could be used. Low COBgro

results for this word may suggest that examples are indispensable, even where lexicographers believe them to be redundant. In comparison, the revised entry for *blind* contained two examples. However, 20% of TMEgro sentences about *blind* were erroneous. It seems that the revised entry for *blind* is still in need of more elaboration since some users were misinterpreting its meaning.

The fourth possible reason that accounts for some COBgro errors is the lack of collocations. This is shown in the following example:

They are children of high **go**. **COBgro**

The above is an example of the deficiency of COBUILD entry for *go*. It fails to provide any word which habitually occurs with the defined word. The revised entry for *go*, on the other hand, provides users with two possible collocations: "plenty of" and "full of". These collocates were used in some sentences produced by TMEgro. Similar errors occurred with *blind*. COBgro sentences about *blind* contained several collocational errors. Many users of COBUILD used wrong collocates because the dictionary explanation did not contain the possible semantic valency of *blind*. The following sentences illustrate this point.

Salesmen often try to **blind** customers with temptation and reductions.
Do not **blind** me with these myths.

These sentences show the deficiency of the COBUILD entry for *blind* which does not contain the collocates of *blind*. It seems that including the 'etc' in the definition encouraged users to

resort to their word knowledge which proved to be scarce. As detailed in chapter 6, users found great difficulty deciding which words could replace 'etc' in definitions.

As noticed above, TMEgro did not perform well with all words, but they were always doing better than COBgro. For one word, however, the situation was reversed. As shown in table 7.3, COBgro appeared to do better than TMEgro with *rear* but nonetheless the difference was not significant ($t=1.185$, $p<.282$). A scrutiny of TMEgro errors and the revised explanation of *rear* showed that most errors had nothing to do with the entry itself. Inspection of the sentences showed that the second word paired with *rear*, i.e. "family", was possibly the source of trouble. Some TMEgro seemed not to discriminate between "family" and "children". Perhaps, they considered these words to be interchangeable since families are usually made up of parents and children. Consequently, the following sentence was produced:

She **reared** a big family out of cleaning others' houses.

Some sentences, however, showed that subjects might have misunderstood the meaning of *rear*. Witness the following example:

Rearing a family needs hard work.

This probably illustrates the disadvantage of the revised entry for *rear*. In this entry, users were not alerted to what can serve as the 'direct object' of *rear*. However, there was no

significant difference in the COBUILD definition and both looked similar.

In some cases, TMEgro errors occurred because of subjects' inattention to some of the information in the entries. In other instances, TMEgro did not appear to use the information present in the entries. They apparently used their own knowledge which resulted in incorrect sentences. The following example shows a writer who ignored the preposition "for" and introduced "around". Possibly, the writer failed to read the complete entry.

I have some friends **fishing** around. **TMEgro**

Overreliance on one's own knowledge is an inherent problem in some dictionary users. Instructing users to confine themselves to the information present in entries and teaching them how to profit from it could probably overcome this.

Before this discussion closes, one final word is needed concerning the syntactic and usage types of error. Most syntactic errors occurred because of an inability to distinguish the third person endings 's' or 'ing' when required. Sometimes, subjects gave a wrong past tense especially with TMEgro. At this stage, the past tense for irregular verbs was not included in the revised entries unlike COBUILD. In addition, some subjects produced sentences about non-required senses of the target word. As shown in the examples below, this happened with both groups. (The first two examples were written by one subject).

Let us have a **go** with the children. **TMEgro**
Brothers! Let's give them a **hand**. **TMEgro**

He surprised her by telling her that they are going to marry in **spring**. **COBgro**

As shown in table 7.2, more usage errors were made by TMEgro. I do not believe this to be due to a serious drawback in TME. Some of the sentences categorised as USG were all right as far as the target word was concerned. It was the general context which was rather odd as witnessed below:

Stand **fast** while walking in the mud. **TMEgro**
He was throwing hints for his friends **fishing** for information. **TMEgro**

In these examples, the writers seem to have no problem with the target words. It appears that the use of "hints" and "mud" caused confusion. Therefore, users, not TME, were to blame for the errors. In the first sentence, for example, the writer seemed to contradict himself unconsciously.

Finally, although the results of TMEgro are impressive, the definitions are still far from perfect. Some TME, e.g. *rear, turn*, etc. need further improvement. For example, for *turn*, one can introduce extra collocations such as "unpleasant", "funny", etc.. Further information to define the kind of "turn" referred to needs to be added.

7.4. Conclusion

This chapter has investigated the effectiveness of tailor-made entries. It attempted to confirm the supposition that EFL learners would produce more correct sentences when consulting entries written with their needs in mind. Results obtained reinforced this supposition. Modified entries played an effective role in helping users to understand defined words and

use them more appropriately. Similarly, subjects working with the tailor-made entries made far fewer errors. It is possible thus to conclude that entries created to meet EFL learners' needs are more productive than traditional dictionary entries. The addition of some collocations and the inclusion of some warning notes, which included some 'preference restrictions', (Hanks, 1987), proved to be effective.

Although these results may be considered a breakthrough in productive dictionary use, the number of items and participants may not be large enough to validate the findings. Nevertheless, this can be a starting point for dictionary-makers to consider the way they introduce meanings to their dictionary users. It is worth considering the idea of designing new entries and developing them in line with the needs of dictionary users. These needs can be revealed by using large and diverse numbers of EFL learners in tasks requiring dictionary usage. Nation (1989:65) points out that EFL dictionaries "should make use of research on vocabulary and vocabulary learning ...".

Finally, the revised entries were rather long and must consider space-conservation in compiling dictionaries. It seems that benefitting EFL learners imposes some special requirements and concessions by dictionary-makers regarding format, size, etc.. Dictionary publishers would argue that they have to save space for reasons of cost, shelf space and portability. I would contend that a dictionary has to be user-friendly. Advantages gained in space are totally outweighed by the losses already outlined. Surely, a more effective dictionary has ultimately greater appeal to users than the present generation of rather ineffective dictionaries. I think that increased sales of a more useful dictionary would be the

logical outcome if the publishers followed the dictates of the above study.

Some more research is still needed to ascertain whether examples are necessary. It is claimed (e.g. Black, 1986; Scott and Nagy, 1990 and Nesi, 1994) that the presence of 'meaning conveyors' does not make a significant difference for productive purposes. It is worth doing some research to corroborate this claim and see whether EFL learners can still achieve similar scores with revised definitions alone. If such research is accurate, the abandonment of examples would leave space to include other useful information at no extra cost.

Chapter eight
Conclusion

8.1. Introduction

The present work, it is hoped, has contributed to the understanding of the use of EFL dictionaries by Arab learners of English. Nine studies have been conducted to investigate learners' interaction with certain aspects of productive dictionary use. Most of these studies involved learners in real-life dictionary-use tasks. The results obtained give a pen portrait of the means EFL learners employ to obtain dictionary information.

The evidence of the literature review, confirmed by a replication study, suggested three particular problems which warranted investigation. *Missing words*: a substantial number of EFL learners claimed that they did not find some words looked up in dictionaries. *Compounds look-up strategies*: it appeared that many learners failed to look up compounds correctly because of the adoption of faulty strategies. It is likely that word frequency had influenced learners' look-ups. *Problematic definitions*: learners claimed that they had difficulty understanding dictionary definitions. Below is a summary of the conclusions, drawn from these studies.

8.2. Findings and their implications

8.2.1. Missing words

This issue was addressed in chapter 3. It was believed that this problem is serious enough to deserve a thorough investigation. Several causes might have accounted for this problem (see chapters 2 and 3). If these are remedied, dictionaries will become effective tools and more

user-friendly. Two studies were conducted to ascertain whether EFL learners encounter problems with finding: (a) particular meanings in entries for polysemous words and (b) the meaning of nominal compounds. The results helped account for the rather large proportion of learners reporting problems with missing words. This problem was partly attributed to learner difficulties in finding the meanings of some polysemous words. This was especially true where the definitions were considered to be weak. Learner failure to look up multiword units successfully may have accounted in a large part for missing words. A third factor could be that specialised and highly technical words, which were sought by users, were absent from monolingual dictionaries. Some users possibly used inappropriate dictionaries. Evidence for this was furnished in chapter 2. I shall now discuss some useful points discovered in chapter 3.

The first study showed that finding the exact meaning to words in context occasionally proved difficult. Most testees succeeded in locating at least 80% of the target meanings. A close examination of entries for the words in question suggested that the way some words were treated might have deterred candidates from finding the meanings sought. Some explanations were so obscure that candidates were probably unable to comprehend them and match them with context. I believe that this minor difficulty can be overcome by similar definitions being better differentiated.

It appears that candidates at this level of language learning do not satisfy themselves with the first meaning they come across in the long entries. They are consistently deliberate in their searches. This finding has an implication for dictionary-makers. They would be advised to

present all meanings that EFL learners need. In this way, learners would gain from having a more comprehensive pool of meanings to dip into. Hence, no complaint will be made about missing meanings.

Another interesting finding is that COBUILD users fared better than LDOCE. This may suggest that the COBUILD new defining style, i.e. sentence definition format, is more effective than LDOCE in helping learners decipher words in context. It is also likely that the physical layout of COBUILD entries, which gives each sense a separate paragraph, has played some role in this improved result. I believe more research, wholly devoted to verify the factors that made COBUILD more effective, is necessary.

The results from the second study showed that Arab, Malaysian and English candidates had a serious problem with finding nominal compounds in monolingual dictionaries. In many cases, such lexical items were looked up in the wrong place. Adjective-noun expressions were mostly looked up under the noun. The look-ups of noun-noun expressions were unpredictably not systematic. Overall, user groups did not conform to any regular pattern of behaviour. Candidate failure is in the first place attributed to ignorance of dictionary policy in placing compounds. Interference from learners' L1 strategies is also suspected of having an influence on their look-ups.

8.2.2. Looking up compounds

The issue of learners' look-up strategies of two-word expressions was addressed in chapters 3 and 4. It was noticed that learners looked up multiword units differently. This resulted in

incorrect look-up operations. If this problem is not overcome, dictionaries will remain ineffective. Therefore, it was worth investigating learner look-up strategies in order that they could be taken into account in learners' dictionaries. It was suspected that candidates would opt for the least frequent element in multiword units. Two studies were carried out to find out whether word frequency played a role in learner look-ups of noun-noun phrases. The results showed that word frequency had no bearing on candidate look-ups. It appears that dictionary users did not look up some compounds correctly because they focused on the 'meaning-bearer'. This element was considered to be the second word about half of the time.

Overall, the results revealed a wide disparity between candidate look-ups and lexicographer policy. What the candidate considered the 'meaning-bearer' was not necessarily the right element under which the meaning was entered in EFL dictionaries. Candidates have failed to find the meaning of about half the expressions since monolingual EFL dictionaries enter nominal compounds under the first elements. Amazingly, it appears that individual candidates have their own criteria upon which they decide the element that specifies the meaning of the expression. This allows me to draw the conclusion that dictionary-makers' placement of compounds under the first element, regardless of their types, word classes, frequency, etc. seems to be an ideal solution. Dictionary-makers cannot take into account users' unsystematic look-up behaviour. However, they may like to adopt CIDE policy in giving compounds a phrase index. This, although space-consuming, will exempt them from cross-referencing compounds and entering or explaining them in two places.

Below is a summary of the different findings discovered in chapter 4.

The results from the first study showed that Arab and English dictionary users tended to look up noun-noun expressions under the least frequent element. The frequency effect was not always in evidence, however. Candidate look-ups showed an overlap between two factors: word frequency and first element.

Study two, which was conducted to validate findings from study one, showed that Arab and English candidates alike were good predictors of word frequency. They consistently distinguished between most and least frequent elements. Only in a few cases was guessing the frequency of some words problematic. The results of candidate look-ups of multiword units showed that neither natives nor non-natives' look-ups were affected by word frequency. Likewise, the 'first element' did not have a bearing on candidate look-up behaviour. Both natives and non-natives' scores were around chance level.

Information obtained by candidate interviews showed that the look-ups of multiword units were influenced by the meaning of the expressions. Candidates favoured what they called the 'meaning-bearer'. One puzzling thing about this behaviour was that candidates were not of one mind regarding the element that could be the meaning-bearer. Each had his own way of deciding.

8.2.3. problems with definitions

The issue of learner dissatisfaction with dictionary explanations was addressed in chapters 5, 6 and 7. This, in my opinion, is the most serious problem that learners may ever face with using dictionaries. If learners' exact complaints about definitions are not accounted for,

dictionaries will not play their part in the language learning process.

Four studies were conducted to reveal learners' difficulties in using COBUILD and LDOCE entries. Learners were involved in productive dictionary-use tasks, i.e. producing sentence and judging and providing collocations. The results showed that dictionary entries were sometimes problematic. These induced many types of error. Most frequent of these were kidrule, where learners latched onto some parts of the definition, and collocational errors.

It appeared that the way the definitions were formulated had affected EFL learner approaches to the information provided. Learners focused on one segment of the definition. This approach led to poor results most of the time because learners misinterpreted the meaning and subsequently providing wrong collocates of the target word. Another important reason for the occurrence of many errors was the lack of some necessary information. An important feature is still missing from dictionary entries. There is a need for clearer information which allows users to extrapolate correctly and deter them from overgeneralisation. Scholfield (1980:104) points out that "Collocation restrictions are essential to correct production". In another article, i.e. (Scholfield, 1982a), he argues that entries can be used as sources for self-correction of certain kinds of errors.

Not surprisingly, no significant difference was demonstrated between the production and judgements of COBUILD and LDOCE users. More important than that, no dictionary appeared to significantly elicit more errors of any one category. Despite dictionary-makers' endeavours to restrict themselves to a special metalanguage, e.g. LDOCE and their use of a

novel defining style, e.g. COBUILD and despite their special emphasis on collocations, entries were sometimes less productive than expected.

These results may disappoint dictionary-makers. The expectations of dictionary users seemed not to be in line with the dictionary-makers'. However, dictionary-makers should not be deterred from further improving dictionary entries to meet user needs and produce more serviceable dictionaries. But, what goes in dictionary entries has to be based on empirical research.

Further research (see chapter 7) showed that entries created to meet EFL learner needs were more productive than traditional dictionary entries. The addition of some collocations, omission of brackets and the inclusion of some warning notes about the usage of the target words proved to be effective. The sentences produced seemed to attest writers' success in assimilating most of the productive information introduced in the new entries. This result could be attributed to the fact that the writers, unlike in Nesi (1994), were allowed to read the information more than once. Unfortunately, it was difficult to test learners knowledge of the information presented in the entries in another test. Authorities on vocabulary acquisition (e.g. Meara, 1980) argue that new words only gradually become integrated into learners' mental lexicon.

Dictionary-makers can easily reduce learners' difficulties if they are willing to adopt a new defining technique (see chapter 7). It is true that sometimes some definitions would be space-consuming, but would possibly result in improved production. Space could be released

for the longer entries if parts of the front and back matters; cross-references; etc. are reduced. It is surprising that although dictionary-makers' 'gems of wisdom' placed at the front or back remained mostly unread, these matters are still included (Kirkpatrick, 1989).

Producing entries of the type mentioned above, dictionary-makers are not obliged to produce dictionaries that are tailored to particular language groups. The results from this thesis and from Nesi (1994) appear to suggest that most errors made by EFL learners are similar. However, dictionary workbooks "should be explicitly oriented towards specific types of user" (Stark, 1990:27).

A number of other findings emerged from the studies conducted in chapters 5, 6 and 7. These are detailed below.

Chapter 5 revealed user failure to produce correct sentences. Approximately, 20% of the sentences were completely wrong. The Kidrule strategy accounted for many mistakes. Three categories of minor errors, which constitutes about a quarter of the corpus, were discovered. The largest number of these errors were collocational in nature.

On examining candidate errors, it appeared that some of the definitions encouraged users to adopt the kidrule stratagem, especially where synonyms were used. The absence of some crucial information may have induced some of the users' errors. Sometimes, the information was presented in parenthesis and dictionary users failed to realise its significance. Some definitions were formulated in a way that encouraged users to pick out certain parts of the

definition as if they bore the word's entire meaning. Occasionally, users collocated these fragments with words that could not occur with the defined word. At other times, users might have failed to benefit from the information present in the dictionary. Some users possibly lacked the necessary skills for efficient dictionary use.

Chapter 6 investigated some of the reasons, e.g. collocations, synonyms and use of 'etc' which seemed to induce a large number of incorrect sentences. The results from the first study showed that most testees were unable to judge verb-noun collocations correctly. The success achieved following dictionary consultation was minimal. Scrutiny of entries for the two parts of the expressions under consideration suggested that user failure was due to lack of sufficient clues.

On analysis of the oral report data, interesting findings emerged. Unexpectedly, the respondents appeared to be carefully examining the information provided in the entries before making their judgements. This tallies with candidates' deliberate searches for meaning, reported in chapter 3.

Study two revealed testees' abject failure to replace 'etc' in the definitions of some verbs by some nouns that could collocate with the target verbs. Likewise, it appeared that users found it hard to recognise what could not occur with these verbs. They judged many unacceptable collocates of the defined verbs as correct. These results allow me to contend that dictionary entries containing 'etc' leave EFL learners in too much doubt about the range of the words that can collocate with the defined word. I believe that this problem can be resolved by either

replacing 'etc' with some of the collocates of the defined word or by providing some extra information, which can prevent users from collocating the defined word wrongly.

The analysis of user performance showed that learners adopted the kidrule strategy. This was manifested in their concentration on certain fragments of the definition. These fragments were sometimes the synonyms provided in the explanation or the collocates included in parenthesis. This was substantiated by evidence from learners' verbal report data. It seemed obvious that the format of the definitions encouraged users to adopt the kidrule strategy.

The results from both studies confirmed that collocation was problematic for EFL learners. Dictionary definitions seemed not to help learners solve their difficulties in using collocations. This is because of the insufficiency of semantic information in dictionary entries, at least not in the form that EFL learners could understand and use.

Chapter seven reinforced the supposition that EFL learners would produce more correct sentences when consulting entries written with their needs in mind. Tailor-made entries played a role in helping users to understand defined words and use the meanings more appropriately. Similarly, learners working with such entries made far fewer errors.

8.3. Recommendations and questions for future research

This thesis has discussed some of the questions raised in chapters 1 and 2. The results obtained allow me to make some recommendations which can by and large promote English language learning. In addition, some other questions, which deserve further enquiry by other

scholars, have arisen in the course of the research. These are discussed below.

The most important area of research into dictionary use is still lacking and the various aspects of research contained in this dissertation have not completely addressed this point. This is the absence of a well-organised research methodology and a productive data collection method to investigate the aspects of dictionary use. The present methods employed in studies into dictionary use are problematic. (For a detailed critical evaluation of these methods, see Nesi, 1994). This area of language learning is still way behind in comparison with other disciplines. Both language teachers and lexicographers seem to neglect this issue. Again, although there exist some teaching techniques, i.e. handbooks, on how to use dictionaries efficiently, theories on vocabulary acquisition from dictionaries and the empirical bases of these techniques and materials are still missing. Likewise, psycholinguistic research into dictionary use is yet lacking. Hence, an important question to which we need an answer is: what takes place when learners use dictionaries?

Regarding the area of missing words, I was disappointed to find a flaw relating to user strategy in looking up polysemous words. The way some look-ups were performed suggested that candidates lacked the necessary skills for using dictionaries efficiently. Some candidates appeared not to know how dictionary entries were structured. Obviously, this knowledge is indispensable for successful timesaving look-ups. I suspect, a 'protocol' study, where users' performance is video- and audio-taped (cf. Al-Besbasi, 1991), is needed to explore the strategies they employ when looking up polysemes.

One limitation of the above study, which has to be taken into consideration in future research, is that no control was exerted over the length of the entries used. There existed some variation in the length of entries for the same words in the two dictionaries. This was due to the different defining styles and to the number of senses included. Likewise, the type and the relatively small number of stimuli used might have influenced the results. Possibly, a different and larger number of stimuli may result in disparate conclusions.

Regarding compounds' look-up strategies, materials writers and syllabus designers may utilise learners' instinctive ability and knowledge on word frequency. If further investigation can show that EFL learners really can guess word frequency, whether consciously or otherwise, this may help materials writers produce useful and productive materials. Knowledge of word frequency affects candidates' word identification abilities (Pearson and Studt, 1975 and Perkins and Brutten, 1983) and reading comprehension (Klare, 1968, cited in Arnaud, 1990).

Both studies in chapter 4 had defects. No pre-check was previously carried out on candidates' knowledge of the meanings of the materials used. Although the items were controlled in terms of frequency, with hindsight candidates' knowledge of the meanings of these words had to be assessed. This knowledge could have affected the results.

In chapters 3 and 4, I restricted my research to investigating learners' look-up strategies of compounds. Little research has been done on looking up idioms. I am only aware of Tono (1988) which was conducted with Japanese learners of English. Other user groups' strategies

in looking up idioms are still unknown. I believe this area is worthy of research.

In chapter 4, the information elicited from interviewees appeared to suggest that they focused on the meaning-bearer. However, this evidence is still in need of further verification. This issue is worth researching with several populations from different language backgrounds to ascertain whether learners differ regarding the choice of the meaning-bearer and whether there exists any L1 effect. Learners can be assigned the task of indicating the meaning-bearer in the two-word expressions.

The four studies conducted to investigate dictionary definitions were not drawback-free. In chapter 5, the random use of another set of words to be used in the sentences with the target words may have created problems and increased the number of errors. Although these words were intended to prevent testees from copying the examples in the entries, no control was established over the testees to prevent them from modelling on these examples.

In chapter 6, it is possible that learners' poor results might have been caused by the materials used. It is likely that the task was difficult. Even some native speakers complained about the tests. An easier test may have given better results. Also, the judgement of the testees' answers in the second study, in this chapter, might have been disadvantageous. I noticed that native speakers sometimes differed about the words that could collocate with the target verbs. (To reiterate, answers were checked against a list of collocations compiled with the help of dictionaries and some native judges). This might slightly have affected the results. Possibly, candidates' answers should have been judged against one of the present-day corpora, e.g. the

British National Corpus or COBUILD.

In chapter 7, it was difficult to determine an optimum number of collocates which have to be introduced to a definition to be effective. This was caused by the lack of homogenous stimulus materials. That is to say, not all words required collocates of the same type. Some words needed collocates in the 'object', 'subject' or 'intensifier' position. Other words needed collocates of more than one type. This issue can be investigated with a more homogenous set of words which require similar types of collocates.

The findings in chapter seven may not be conclusive owing to the short list of items and the size of the sample. It is worth replicating this study with a larger population. In the main, these results can be a starting point for dictionary-makers to consider a new way of explaining words. I strongly encourage dictionary-makers to consider the idea of designing new entries to better meet users' needs. Such needs can be investigated by using a large and diverse number of EFL learners, in tasks requiring productive dictionary use.

Several issues relating to learners' use of entries are worthy of investigation. In chapter 6, I only assessed the learners' ability to provide object collocates for certain verbs. Their ability at providing other types of collocation has not yet been researched. Further research into how successfully EFL learners use dictionary entries to interpret adverb and adjective collocates for verbs, adjectives and nouns, respectively, is needed.

In chapter 7, the revised entries were rather long. If the existing evidence that the presence of

examples does not play a significant role in user production, these could be removed, saving space. Further research to corroborate this claim and ascertain whether EFL learners can achieve similar scores with tailor-made definitions, is necessary. My belief is that good-quality examples are indispensable; optimum success may not be achieved otherwise.

Finally, and in addition, a number of other suggestions have arisen from the research in this dissertation. Some of them are presented below.

While preparing the materials in chapter six, it appeared that dictionaries differed regarding the placement of verb-noun collocational information. Sometimes, the collocates of a certain verb are given at the entry for the noun in one dictionary and at the entry for the verb in another. It is dictionary-makers' intuition that determines the placement of this type of information. It is worth researching this area to discover learner look-up strategy. Following the example of chapters 3 and 6, it is likely they look up such expressions, under the noun.

In my evaluation of prior studies into dictionary use, I noticed that very little research, if any, has been conducted to discover learner real-life use of the grammatical information. Both LDOCE and ALD give sentence patterns considerable attention, but nothing is known about how users handle this information and whether they derive any benefit from them. It is useful to do some research to investigate this issue.

Similarly, no single empirical study, to my knowledge, has been conducted to investigate the usefulness of pictures in dictionaries. This issue is still controversial. Neither lexicographers

nor EFL teachers are of one mind about the effectiveness of pictures in monolingual dictionaries (cf. Ilson, 1987b; Nesi, 1989 and Stein, 1991). Studies into learner reference needs have shown that learners make use of pictures. Tomaszczyk (1979) reported that 90% of his subjects claimed that pictures and drawings made some words easy to understand. It is worth examining the role of pictures in both comprehension and production to ascertain Scholfield's (1980) argument that a picture plus a well-chosen explanation is "an invaluable support" to enlighten a certain term.

Alongside the suggested improvement of entries; instruction in dictionary usage would be beneficial. McCarthy (1990:136) points out that

> much practical training may be necessary to encourage fuller and more productive use, especially in the use of learner's dictionary as an *encoding* tool.

Perceptible outputs cannot be obtained from using monolingual dictionaries without having learners who know how to exploit them. MacFarquhar and Richards (1983) complained that scant attention was given to English language learners on how best to use their monolingual dictionaries. Teaching institutions seem to be unaware of the value of teaching dictionary use. Therefore, for these entries to be absolutely effective, training in dictionary use should precede or accompany the use of the revised entries. "New dictionaries demand new types of training..." (Tickoo, 1987). There is general agreement (Allen, 1983; Gairns and Redman; 1986; Ilson, 1986a, Cowie, 1987; Tickoo, 1989a; Battenburg, 1991) on teaching dictionary use. Interestingly, Rey (1986) suggests that an extensive lexicographic training should be given to lexicographers rather than to dictionary users.

The ideal practice, I believe, is to incorporate training in monolingual dictionary use at an early stage of foreign language learning. This implies that many hours should be spent practising dictionary use. Such a procedure is twofold. It instructs learners how to use monolingual dictionaries. Here, "teacher guidance is important in any attempt to make the best possible use of a dictionary", Gouws (1987:66). Teachers have to confront learners' overwhelming satisfaction with bilingual dictionaries. The biggest challenge is to convince learners that there are occasions when bilingual dictionaries are almost useless, i.e. in some production tasks. Teachers have to provide genuine stimulation, otherwise the learners will lose interest. Since it appeared that most dictionary users purchased their books according to their tutors' advice, this implies that teachers should be aware of what constitutes and what belongs to a good dictionary, for any particular task.

Secondly, it gets learners into the habit of using dictionaries. Many exercises (e.g. Valette, 1977) and games (e.g. Lee, 1979 and Wright, et al. 1979) can be adapted and incorporated in learners coursebooks to encourage them to use monolingual dictionaries. Literature on training in dictionary use is readily available (e.g. Beattie, 1973; Marckwardt, 1973; Scholfield, 1982b; Underhill, 1985; Béjoint, 1989).

After an exhaustive and painstaking research of all three dictionaries, I have come to the following conclusions. I believe that in order to achieve the best chance of selecting the right word, all three dictionaries would have to be owned. However, although the three dictionaries seem to complement one another, there are occasions where they all frustrate their users. They present little information to help users encode correct collocations and

deliver proper messages. For example, the three dictionaries do not give the preposition which collocates with "perpetrate". Likewise, neither "totally" nor "utterly" was given at the entry for "rely". No qualifier collocate was given at the entry for "co-operation". Even the inclusion of lexical items differs widely. For example, out of the sixty expressions used in chapter four, 14, 3 and 20 were missing in ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE, respectively. The situation was different in chapter three. Out of the 39 expressions, 2, 15 and 14 were absent from ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE

Thanks to modern technology, an Explanatory Combinatorial Dictionary is due to appear in the near future (see Steele, 1990). Such a dictionary would provide users with all the information they might require.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire used in chapter 2

AlZ93a

DicArab 1

This project is designed to improve the situation of mono-lingual English dictionaries as far as the Arabic-speaking learners of English are concerned. Your co-operation will help dictionary compilers take account of Arab learners' needs in any future editions of learners' dictionaries.

Please answer the questions below.

Name: _____ Course: _____

Age: [ ] When did you arrive in the U.K.? [19__]

Sex: [ ]

1. Do you own a monolingual English dictionary?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

2. Which dictionary (or dictionaries) do you own?

A _____

B _____

3. Why did you choose the main one you bought?

4. When did you buy it? [19__]

5. What other monolingual general English dictionaries do you use?

6. If you use several dictionaries, is there one that you prefer?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

7. If your answer is "yes", what is the name of this dictionary?

8. Why do you prefer this dictionary in particular?

9. How often do you use a monolingual dictionary?

daily [ ] several times a week [ ]

once a week [ ] less often [ ]

not at all [ ]

10. Which types of information do you look for most often in your dictionary?

meaning [ ] grammar [ ] synonyms [ ]

spelling [ ] pronunciation [ ] etymology [ ]

others [ ]

11. For which sort of activity do you most often use your dictionary?

Translation from English into Arabic [ ]

Translation from Arabic into English [ ]

Writing [ ] Reading [ ]

Speaking [ ] Listening [ ]

12. Do you sometimes browse through your dictionary without looking for anything in particular?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. How carefully did you study the introductory matter?

Thoroughly [ ] Part(s) of it [ ]

Not at all [ ]

14. Have you ever used the information at the end of the dictionary?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

15. For which of the following did you use this information?

Abbreviations [ ] Irregular verbs [ ]

Units of measurements (e.g. weight) [ ]

16. Do you use the codes that indicate how a word should be used?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

17. Are you satisfied with your monolingual English dictionary?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

18. Are you more satisfied with your bilingual dictionary?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

19. Can you recall occasions when you could not find what you were looking for?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

20. What of the following occasions could not you find in your dictionary?

Unsatisfactory grammatical guidance [ ]
Words missing [ ]
Unsatisfactory definitions [ ]
Excessively long entries [ ]
Incomprehensible codes [ ]
Pronunciation [ ]

21. Can you mention any words that you were unable to find in your dictionary?

22. What kinds of words do you look most often in the dictionary?

Idioms [ ]
Encyclopaedic words [ ]
Culture-specific words [ ]
Abbreviations [ ]
Slang words [ ]

23. What kinds of words do you never look up?

Common words [ ]
Structural words [ ]
Taboo words [ ]
Proper names

24. Do you make use of the following?

Examples and quotations [ ]
Synonyms [ ]
Pictures [ ]

25. Under which headword would you look up the following compounds?

Artificial insemination

Boil down to

False alarm

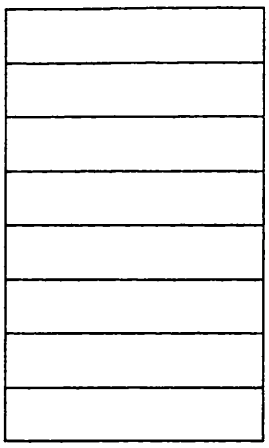
Magnetic tape

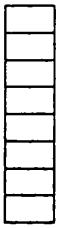
Come down with

Lose sight of

Rid of

Fountain pen

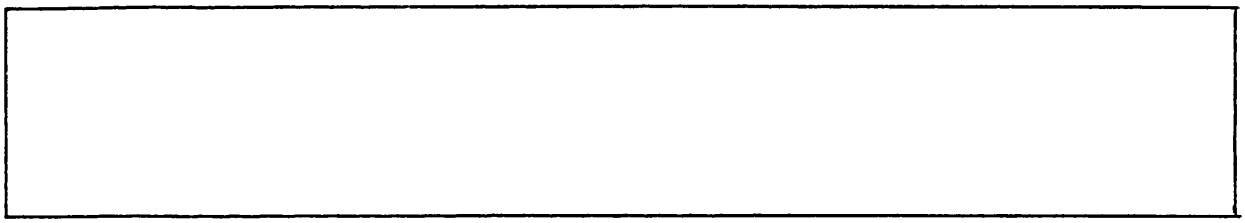




26. Do you think your dictionary is too simplified, or on the contrary too detailed?

Too simplified [ ] Too detailed [ ]

27. Do you have any other comments on the dictionary you own?



Appendix 2.1: materials used in chapters 3 and 5
COBUILD entries

ALZ94a

LexArab 5

Name _____ Course _____

This booklet consists of 20 pages. Each page contains a sentence with an underlined word and a dictionary definition of that word like this:

Who is <u>game</u> for a walk in this cold weather?	4

2 The word game is also used in the following expressions. 2.1 If you say It's all part of the game, you are telling someone not to be surprised or upset by something, because it is a normal part of the situation that they are in. 2.2 If you beat someone at their own game, you use the same methods that they have used, but more successfully, so that you gain an advantage over them. EG *The Japanese were trouncing the West at its own game.* 2.3 If you say the game is up or someone's game is up, you mean that their secret plans or activities have been revealed and therefore must stop because they cannot succeed. EG *He glanced at Marianne, 'Game's up, love'... The British realized that the game was up.* 2.4 If something or someone gives the game away, they reveal the secret of a plan, puzzle, trick, etc and prevent it being successful or enjoyable. EG *I always give the game away-you've only got to look at my face... The key words have been omitted because they would give the game away.* 2.5 If you are new to a particular game, you have not done a particular activity or been in a particular situation before. EG *I'm a bit new to this game myself.* 2.6 If you say that someone is playing games or playing silly games, you mean that they are not treating a situation seriously and that you are annoyed with them. EG *Stop playing games, Jeremy!... All she ever does is play silly games.* 2.7 If you say that someone is not playing the game, you mean that they are not behaving in a fair or reasonable way in a particular situation. 2.8 If someone asks you 'What's your game?', they are suspicious of your behaviour and want to know what your intentions are; an informal expression

3 Game is 3.1 wild animals or birds that are hunted or killed for sport and sometimes cooked and eaten. EG *The men had gone to hunt wild game... ...meat, game and poultry... ...game reserves.* 3.2 a person who you think can be tricked, made to look foolish, or persuaded to do what you want them to. EG *I look easy game... The daughter of a general was after bigger game.*

4 If you say that someone is game or game for something, you mean that they are willing to do something new, unusual or risky. EG *He was certainly game. I put him on the horse and he didn't look at all scared... I'm game for anything!* • See also gamely.

5 Games are 5.1 an organized event in which competitions in several sports take place. EG *...the ground on which the games were held... ...the Highland Games... ...a gold medal winner in the Olympic Games.* 5.2 in British English, organized sports activities that children do at school. EG *You were always hopeless at games at school... ...a games mistress.*

6 See also ball game, fair game, waiting game. • the name of the game : see name. • fun and games : see fun.

gamekeeper /geɪmkiːpə/, **gamekeepers.** A gamekeeper is a person who takes care of the wild animals or birds that are kept on someone's land for shooting or hunting. EG *Sir Matthew's gamekeeper raised pheasants.*

gamely /geɪmliˈ/ means done bravely or with effort. EG *The vicar rose gamely to the challenge... The bock gamely tries to avoid moralizing.*

The definition is complex. This is because the underlined word has many different meanings.

What you have to do is this: read the definition and decide which meaning fits the underlined word in the sentence. Write the number of the correct definition in the box beside the sentence. In the example the correct answer is [4], so you write 4 in the box beside the example.

Next you have to show that you understand the particular meaning of the underlined word. You do this by writing a short sentence in the box underneath the definition. Your sentence should include the <u>two</u> words on the top of the box like this:

game adventure <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence
He is always game for adventure.

Thank you very much for your help

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Swansea University
Swansea SA2 8PP

My uncle was proud of the tiger he bagged while he was working on the Indian Railway.

bag /bæg/, **bags, bagging, bagged.** 1 A **bag** is a container made of thin paper or plastic and used especially in shops to put things in that a customer has bought. EG *...a paper bag.* ▸ **Bag** is also used to refer to the things or the amount of things that a bag contains. EG *He ate a whole bag of sweets.* N COUNT ▸ N PART

2 A **bag** is also a strong container made of cloth, plastic, leather, etc with a handle or handles, in which you keep personal things that you will need during the day, or put shopping in, or put belongings in when you are travelling somewhere. EG *She opened her bag and took out a handkerchief... He was carrying a red shopping bag... He packed his bags and drove to the airport.* • See also **shoulder-bag, sleeping bag.** N COUNT

3 If you have **bags** under your eyes, you have puffy areas or folds of skin under your eyes, for example because you have not had enough sleep or you are old. N PLURAL

4 If you say there is **bags of** something or there are **bags of** particular things, you mean that there is a large amount of it or a large number of them; used in informal British English. EG *There's bags of room... We've got bags of things to do before we leave.* N PART : PLURAL = heaps of

5 If you **bag** something that a lot of people want, you get it for yourself before anyone else can get it; used in informal British English. EG *Can you bag the front seats for us?* V+O, V+O+O, OR V+O+A *(for)* = reserve

6 If you **bag** an animal or bird, you shoot or catch it while hunting. V+O

7 If you call a woman an old **bag** or a stupid **bag**, you are insulting her; a rude and offensive use. N COUNT : ALSO VOC

8 The word **bag** is also used in the following expressions in informal English. 8.1 If you say that something is **in the bag**, you mean that you are certain that you will get it or achieve it. 8.2 If you **pack your bags**, you leave a place where you have been living. EG *I decided it was time to pack my bags.* 8.3 If you are thrown out of a place **bag and baggage**, you are made to leave and take all your belongings with you. PHR : USED AS AN A / PHR : VB INFLECTS / PHR : USED AS AN A

9 The word **bag** is also used in the following expressions which are explained at other places in this dictionary. • **to let the cat out of the bag**: see **cat.** • **a mixed bag**: see **mix.** • **a bag of bones**: see **bone.** • **a bag of tricks**: see **tricks.**

bag up. If you **bag up** a quantity of something, you put it into bags. PHRASAL VB : V+O+ADV

bag actor <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

blind /blaind/, **blinds, blinding, blinded.** 1 Someone who is **blind** is unable to see because their eyes are damaged. EG *The accident had left him almost totally blind... He was blind in one eye... We went to the blind school.* ▸ used as a verb. EG *The acid went on her face and blinded her.* ◊ **blindness.** EG *Eye damage can result in temporary or permanent blindness.* ▸ The **blind** is used to refer to people who are blind. EG *What do you think of the help that's given to the blind?*

ADJ CLASSIF
↑ disabled
▸ V+O
◊ N UNCOUNT
▸ N PLURAL : the
+N
↑ disabled
≠ sighted

2 If something such as light **blinds** you, you are unable to see for a short period of time because of its effect. EG *My eyes were momentarily blinded by flash bulbs... The dust from the roads in the summertime was enough to blind you.* ▸ used as an adjective. EG *She had trodden on the broken bottle, blind as she was with tears and rage.*

V+O
▸ ADJ CLASSIF : IF
+PREP THEN
with

3 A **blind** is a wide roll of cloth, paper, or strips of plastic, which you can pull over a window in order to keep out the light or prevent people from looking in. EG *She slammed the window down and pulled the blind.*

N COUNT
↑ fixture
= shade

4 Someone who is **blind** to something is unable understand it, to make sensible judgements, or to reasonable about it. EG *I realized how blind the ser had made me.* ▸ used of people's actions or beh iour. EG *Mrs Haze never ceases to amaze me with blind faith in the wisdom of her Church... She driven him into a blind rage.* ◊ **blindness.** E *marvelled at whatever blindness it had been t allowed me to stay in that hopeless relationship.*

5 If something **blinds** you to the real situation prevents you from noticing or being aware of reality. EG *We have to beware that missionary z doesn't blind us to the realities here.*

6 If someone is **blind** to something that is the truth reality, they are unaware of it, sometimes delib ately. EG *The girls were completely blind to consequences of their actions... They were not bl to the defects of Western society.* ◊ **blindness.** *Their blindness to the problem was astonishing.*

7 If you **blind** someone with science, facts, etc, make them confused, especially by tricking th with clever words that they do not understand.

8 If someone **turns a blind eye** to something t someone else is doing, they pretend not to not what is happening, even though they would norma criticize or punish such behaviour. EG *He had of turned a blind eye to Barber's drinking sessions.*

blind afraid <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence	

The girl hated having her hair dangling around her shoulders, so she decided to have it bobbed.

bob /bɒb/, **bobs, bobbing, bobbed.** **Bob** is both the singular and the plural form of the noun in paragraph 5. 1 If something **bobs**, it moves up and down, like something does when it is floating on water. EG *The float bobbed gently on the ripples... Everything around me seemed to be bobbing up and down... He disappeared into a mass of bobbing heads.* V+A ▮ jump

2 If you **bob** up, down, or in some other direction, you move suddenly in that direction, especially into or out of view. EG *Suddenly an object bobbed up from below the surface... She bobbed down behind the hedge... The receptionist bobbed back into the rear office.* V+A ▮ jump

3 When you **bob** your head, you move it quickly up and down once, for example in greeting. EG *He bobbed his head at the audience.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *...with a bob of her head.* V+O ▬ nod ▸ N COUNT

4 If you **bob** a curtsey or if you **bob**, you make a little curtsey or bow. EG *I bobbed him a curtsey.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *She did her bob to the altar.* V+O, OR V ▸ N COUNT

5 A **bob** is a shilling, in informal old-fashioned English. EG *They used to get four bob an hour.* N COUNT : #+N, OR NUM+N

6 A **bob** is also a hair style in which the hair is cut to about chin length all round the head, except for the fringe. EG *...a stout lady with a raven-black bob.* N COUNT ▮ haircut

7 If you **bob** someone's hair, you cut it in a bob. ◆ **bobbed.** EG *...a girl with blonde bobbed hair.* V+O ◆ ADJ CLASSIF

8 **Bits and bobs** are small objects or parts of something; an informal expression. EG *We'll work out where all the other bits and bobs go later.* PLUR : USED AS O OR S ▬ odds and ends

9 You can say **Bob's your uncle** after describing an action, to indicate that the result comes easily and quickly; an informal expression. EG *You just run it through the computer, and Bob's your uncle!* CONVENTION ▬ hey presto

bob kitchen <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The lorry was coasting down the slope when the accident happened.

coast /kəʊst/, **coasts, coasting, coasted.** 1 A coast is 1.1 the edge of an area of land where the land meets the sea. EG *He landed on the coast of South Carolina... ...the rugged coast of Maine...* 1.2 the part of a country that is next to a sea. EG *We had made up our minds to stay on the East Coast... ...a promoter of women's tennis on the West Coast... ...the industrial cities of the coast.*
N COUNT : IF SING USU *the*+N
N COUNT : USU *the*+N IN SING
1 area

2 If something is off the coast, it is in the sea and near to the coast. EG *...a trawler fishing off the coast of Portugal.*
PHR : USED AS AN A, USU + *of*

3 If something happens or exists from coast to coast, it happens or exists in every part of a large country which has two or more coasts. EG *From coast to coast this newspaper has been attacked.*
PHR : USED AS AN A

4 If you say that the coast is clear, you mean that a particular danger is no longer there, and you can now move about safely. EG *Another twenty minutes and the coast would be clear... See if the coast is clear.*
PHR : VB INFLECTS

5 If a vehicle is coasting, it is continuing to move without being driven by its motor, or without being pushed or pedalled, usually down a slope. EG *I put in the clutch and let the car coast for a second or two.*
V

6 If you are coasting or coasting along, you are doing something without difficulty, worry, or effort; used in informal English. EG *We were coasting along quite nicely until he started interfering.*
V OR PEDAL
VB : V + ADV
PREP : USU CONT
1 progress = sail

coast appear <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

No matter how hard I pushed it, the door was stuck fast.

fast /fɑːst/, **faster, fastest; fasts, fasting, fasted.** 1 Something or someone that is fast moves, does something, or happens with great speed. EG *...a fast car... ...fast communications... Relationships today tend to change at a faster pace than ever before.* ▸ used as an adverb. EG *I ran as fast as I could... The music went faster and faster... News travels pretty fast... ...fast-flowing upland streams.*

ADJ QUALIT = quick, swift, rapid ≠ slow

▸ ADV WITH V

2 You can use fast to ask about the speed of something, even if it is moving quite slowly. EG *...looking out of the windows to see how fast we were going.*

ADV WITH V: AFTER how = quickly

3 If you say that someone or something is fast becoming something, or that something is fast developing, disappearing, etc, you mean that the process mentioned is happening with great speed. EG *We are fast becoming a nation fed on canned food... The time was fast approaching when I would have to leave... Such cultures are fast disappearing from the face of the earth.*

ADV WITH V (-ING) = quickly, rapidly ≠ gradually, slowly

4 A fast road or a fast lane on a motorway is designed for vehicles to travel along quickly. EG *This guy passed me in the fast lane doing at least 100 mph... It's a fast road; there's no speed limit.*

ADJ CLASSIF: ATTRIB ≠ slow

5 A fast surface for sports such as tennis is one which enables a ball to move especially quickly after it has bounced. EG *He found the grass courts at Wimbledon much faster than he'd expected.*

ADJ QUALIT ≠ slow

6 If things happen or are repeated fast, they happen or come quickly one after the other. EG *The footsteps were too fast and heavy to be his mother's.* ▸ used as an adverb. EG *Vivi's tears and memories, spilling so fast, half the words not understood.*

ADJ QUALIT: PRED

▸ ADV WITH V = rapidly ≠ slowly

7 If you do something fast, or if something happens fast, you do it, or it happens, very soon and without any delay. EG *She needed medical help fast... Treat stains as fast as possible.* ▸ used as an adjective. EG *I only got a fast return on my investment once.*

ADV AFTER V:

▸ ADJ QUALIT ATTRIB

8 If you say to someone 'not so fast', you are telling them not to act so soon or to be so sure of success because what they assume will happen may not actually take place. EG *'Jones, Marsh and Barrett,' I told her. 'Not so fast–I'm not a partner yet.'*

CONVENTION ! wait = hold on

9 An activity or action that is fast takes only a short time to do or happen. EG *Give your guests a fast tour of the house... We had a fast game of tennis before breakfast.*

ADJ QUALIT = quick ≠ leisurely

10 If a watch or clock is fast, it is working too quickly and shows a time that is later than the real time.

ADJ QUALIT: PRED ! wrong

11 Fast photographic film is very sensitive and can be used for taking pictures when there is not very much light. EG *You have to use fast film for this.*

ADJ QUALIT

12 Something that is fixed or held fast is firmly fixed, held, or fastened. EG *I struggled to free myself but my leg was stuck fast.* • If you make something fast, you tie it firmly to something else. EG *He made it fast to a bracket on the side.*

ADV AFTER V = tightly

• PER: VB INFLECTS

13 If you hold fast, 13.1 you grip something very tightly because you do not want to let go of it. EG *He was holding fast with his left hand to a strap.* 13.2 you continue doing or thinking the same thing as before, especially when someone is trying to make you give it up. EG *He was determined to hold fast to both kinds of art... ...the feminists held fast in the face of considerable opposition.*

PER: VB INFLECTS

PER: VB INFLECTS = hang on ≠ give up

14 Someone who is fast asleep is completely and thoroughly asleep. EG *The girl was lying fast asleep on the sofa.*

PER: USED A ≠ wide aw

15 If colours or dyes are fast, they will not come out of a piece of cloth when it gets wet. EG *Are the colours fast?*

ADJ CLASSIF PRED ! fixed = permar

16 A fast way of life is one which involves a lot of enjoyable and expensive or dangerous activities; used especially of young people or the way they live. EG *...the desire for a fast life... She wanted to move in the fast set.*

ADJ QUALIT ATTRIB ! active

17 A fast woman is one who shows boldness and lack of modesty in sexual relationships; used showing disapproval. EG *It would stigmatize her for life as a fast woman.*

ADJ QUALIT ATTRIB ! immora = forwarc loose

18 If you play fast and loose with someone, you behave in an unreliable, irresponsible, or insincere way towards them. EG *He had played fast and loose with her affections.*

PER: VB INFLECTS = trifle w

19 If you pull a fast one, you cheat or deceive someone, especially in a deal involving money; an informal expression. EG *He tried to pull a fast one on me.*

PER: VB INFLECTS

20 If you fast, you eat no food for a period of time, especially for a religious reason. EG *He fasts for a whole day every week.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *During my fast I had lost fifteen pounds.*

V ! abstain

▸ N COUNT

21 • to make a fast buck: see buck. • hard and fast: see hard. • thick and fast: see thick.

fast arm <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Journalists always fish for interesting information.

fish /fɪʃ/, **fishes, fishing, fished.** Fish is most commonly used as the plural form, but fishes is also sometimes used. 1 A fish is a creature that lives in water and has a tail and fins. There are many different kinds of fish. EG *We stayed there all day but we didn't catch any fish... ...a shoal of fish... ...collections of minerals, insects, fishes, and birds.* N COUNT

2 Fish is the flesh of a fish eaten as food. EG *...different ways of cooking fish... ...fish and chips.* N UNCOUNT

3 If you fish, you try to catch fish, either for food or as a form of sport or recreation. EG *They went fishing and caught half a dozen trout... The beach is a good place to fish from... ...a trawler fishing off the coast of Iceland.* V : IF ^ PREP THEN *for*

4 If you fish a particular area of water, you try to catch fish in it. EG *It was the first trawler ever to fish those waters.* V-O

5 If you fish for information or praise, you try and get it from another person in an indirect way. EG *I think he was just fishing for compliments.* V^A (*for*) = seek

6 If you fish something out of something or from somewhere, you take or pull it out, often after searching for it for some time; an informal use. EG *According to the police, more bodies have been fished out of the canal... I fished out my passport from the bottom of the bag.* V-O-A = extract = haul

7 If you feel like a fish out of water, you do not feel comfortable or relaxed because you are in an unusual or unfamiliar situation. PHR : USED AS AN A = awkward

8 Someone who drinks like a fish drinks a lot of alcohol; an informal expression. PHR : VB INFLECTS

9 If you say that there are other fish in the sea, you mean that even though a relationship or deal with someone has failed, there are other people with whom you may be successful. PHR

fish red <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

you or from the place where you are now. If you go, 1.1 you move from one place to another, often in order to do something. EG *I went to Stockholm... She went into the sitting-room... He went to get some fresh milk.* 1.2 you leave somewhere. EG *'I must go,' she said... Our train went at 2.25.* ◊ going. EG *I felt sad at his going.* 1.3 you move in a particular direction, or move a particular distance. EG *A car went by... He went down another street... We've gone about thirty miles.* 1.4 you leave a place, especially your house, and take part in an activity. EG *Let's go fishing... She's going for a swim.* ● In informal English, if you say that someone goes doing something, or if you advise them not to go doing something, you are expressing disapproval of the kind of behaviour that you mention. EG *Don't go hiding in the attic... ...the women he goes chasing after.*

V:USU-A
V
◊ N UNCOUNT
V+A
1 travel
V-ING:for
● V-ING

2 If you go and do a particular thing, you move from one place to another in order to do the thing, and you do it. EG *I'll go and see him in the morning.* ● In informal English, if you say that someone has gone and done something, you are expressing annoyance at something foolish that they have done. EG *That idiot Antonio has gone and locked our door.*

V-and-VB:NO CONT
● PHR:VB INFLECTS-PAST PART

3 If you go to school, church, work, etc, you attend it regularly as part of your normal life. EG *She went to London University... ...whether people go to church or not... Having the crèche enables me to go to work.*

V-A(to)

4 In this paragraph, go is usually followed by an adjective that describes the state or condition of a person or thing, or changes in that state or condition.

4.1 If someone goes naked, unarmed, etc, they choose to be in that particular state. EG *What would she think if people went naked?* 4.2 If something goes unheard, unseen, etc, it remains in that particular state because people do not notice it or try to change it. EG *Halliday's absence had gone unnoticed... Her decision went unchallenged.* 4.3 If someone or something goes crazy, bankrupt, grey, etc, they change to that particular state, condition, or colour. EG *The village thought we had gone crazy... They let firms go bankrupt... Her hair was going grey.*

V-C
V-C
1 continue
= remain
V-C
= become

Get set. Go! ● If you say that somethin from the word go, you mean that it hap the very beginning of a situation. EG *She from the word go.*

17 If you say that someone is makir something, you mean that they are being usually in a business or a relationship; expression.

18 has to go, has got to go. 18.1 If y someone has to go or has got to go, you they must be forced to leave a place or *last to be hired had to be the first to go.* say that something has to go or has go mean that you must sell it, get rid of it, o it. EG *It lost three million dollars last yea to go.*

19 to go. 19.1 If you say that there are a things to go, you mean that they still re dealt with, after you have finished with c same group. EG *Eight down and two to go* say that there is a period of time to go that this time must pass before somethin exam or a contract ends or before som pens. EG *There are still two years to go.* say that there is a particular distance mean that you must travel that dista arriving somewhere or finishing a race *less than three miles to go.* 19.4 If you item of food is to go, you mean that it is be taken away and not eaten in the ca rant you are in; used in American Englis

20 Go is the quality of being active and e *...men like Northcliffe, men of go.* ● If someone is on the go, you mean that th and active; an informal expression. EG *the go until they die.* ● If you say 'it's mean that you have many things to do to rest; an informal expression.

21 If someone's sight or hearing is going worse, and they may become blind or *hearing is beginning to go... ...people wh is going.*

22 If something such as a light bulb or engine is going, it is no longer working will soon need to be replaced; an infor *The battery's going.*

go jug <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Everyone knew that he was a grass, so we all avoided him.

grass /gra:s/, **grasses, grassing, grassed.** 1 Grass is 1.1 a very common green plant with long, thin, spiky leaves. Grass is eaten by sheep, cows, etc and is often planted over large areas in parks, gardens, and playing fields. EG *My clothes were damp from walking in long grass.* 1.2 a particular species of grass, usually one that grows wild. EG *...prairie grasses.* 1.3 in informal English, marijuana. EG *...sitting around smoking grass.*

N UNCOUNT

N MASS
1 plant

N UNCOUNT

2 If you talk about the grass, you are referring to an area of ground that is covered with grass, for example in your garden. EG *Keep off the grass.*

N SING : *the* - N
= lawn

3 If you say to someone 'the grass is always greener on the other side of the fence', you are reminding them that other people's situations always seem better or more attractive than your own, but may not really be so.

PHR

4 If you say that someone is being put out to grass, you mean they are no longer being employed because they are considered to be too old or no longer useful; a fairly informal expression. EG *You can't put a 32-year-old out to grass.*

PHR : VB
INFLECTS
= pension off

5 If you grass on someone, you give information to the police or other people in authority about something criminal or wrong which that person has done; an informal use. EG *...the rumour that I had grassed on them.*

V : IF - PREP
TEEN *on*
1 betray
= inform

6 A grass is someone who grasses on someone else; an informal use. EG *Don't trust him-he's a grass.*

N COUNT
= informer

grass over. To grass over an area of ground means to plant grass all over it.

PHRASAL VB
O - ADV

grass asleep <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

My father was a hand in an engineering factory.

hand /hænd/, **hands, handing, handed.** 1 Your hand is the part of your body which is at the end of your arm and has four fingers and a thumb, and which you use to hold things and to pick things up. EG *Louise stood shading her eyes with her hand... He took her hand and passionately squeezed it... He conducts using the simplest hand movements.* N COUNT

2 Your hand is also the style in which you write with a pen or pencil; a literary word. EG *He writes, in his neat little hand: 'Happy Birthday, Julia.'* N SING WITH DET +SUPP = handwriting

3 The hand of someone or something is an effective influence that the person or thing has on particular events or on a particular situation. EG *...the hand of fate... ...the hand of God... The hand of the military in shaping government policy was obvious.* N SING : *the* + N + *of*

4 If you ask someone for a hand with something, you ask them to help you in what you are doing. EG *I wonder if you could give me a hand to get my raincoat on?.. Do you need a hand with that?* • To lend a hand: see lend. N SING : *a* + N, IF + PREP THEN *with*

5 If a person speaking to an audience asks for a hand for someone, they ask the audience to clap loudly, usually to welcome them before they perform something or to applaud them afterwards. EG *Let's give a big hand to Sally for singing so beautifully tonight.* N SING : *a* + N ‡ applause

6 If a man asks for a woman's hand or for her hand in marriage, he asks her or her parents for permission to marry her; an old-fashioned use. EG *The Spanish envoy came to plead for her hand on behalf of the King of Spain... I've told him I have asked for your hand in marriage and that you've rejected me.* N SING WITH DET : WITH POSS

7 A hand is 7.1 someone, usually a man, who does hard physical work, for example in a factory or on a farm, as part of a group of people who all do similar work. EG *...farm hands... All hands on deck!* • See also old hand. 7.2 a long thin piece of metal, plastic, etc, that points to numbers around the edge of a dial, usually on the face of a clock in order to show what the time is. 7.3 the cards that you are holding in your hand at any time in a game of cards, or the cards that are dealt to you at the beginning of the game. EG N COUNT ‡ worker = labourer

N COUNT ‡ indicator

N COUNT

...a hand of poker... I've had some lousy hands tonight. 7.4 a measurement of four inches or about ten centimetres, which is used for measuring the height of a horse from its front hooves to its shoulders. EG *It was a small horse, only fourteen hands.* N COUNT : NUM + N

8 Hand is used in the following ways after different prepositions. 8.1 Something that is **at hand**, **near at hand**, or **close at hand** is very near in time or place. EG *I picked up a book that happened to lie at hand and read a few pages... The apocalypse stood at hand, the new world waited to be born.* 8.2 If you do something **by hand**, you do it using your hands rather than a machine. EG *I did the sewing by hand.* PHR : USED AS AN A ‡ manually

8.3 If you have time **in hand**, you have it free to do what you want before something starts. EG *He arrived with half an hour in hand and went for a walk.* PHR AFTER N ‡ spare

8.4 The job, problem, etc **in hand** is the job that you are dealing with at the moment. EG *Let's get on with the job in hand.* 8.5 A situation that you have **in hand** is one that you have under control. EG *The Prime Minister has the situation well in hand.* PHR : AFTER N, OR USED AS AN A

8.6 Something that you know **off hand** is something that you know without having to ask anyone else or look up in a book. EG *What time do we get there? Do you know off hand?... I can't think off hand what the answer is.* PHR : USED AS AN A = off the cuff

8.7 Someone or something that is **on hand** is near and ready to help if they are needed. EG *Emergency services were on hand in case there was any trouble.* PHR : USED AS AN A ‡ available

8.8 If you make a decision **out of hand**, you make it quickly and suddenly without any thought of changing your mind, especially when you decide to reject something in some way. EG *One might even be inclined to dismiss it out of hand.* PHR : USED AS AN A ‡ instantly

8.9 If you have something **to hand**, you have it with you or near you ready to use when needed. EG *I haven't got one to hand... ...using the material most readily to hand.* PHR : USED AS AN A ‡ available = handy

hand August <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

He tried to persuade me to believe him, but his story was full of holes.

hole /həʊl/, **holes, holing, holed.** 1 A hole is 1.1 a hollow space in something solid, with an opening on one side. EG *What do you recommend for filling holes and cracks?... First of all dig a deep hole in the ground.* 1.2 the home or hiding place of a mouse, rabbit, or other small animal. EG *It makes its home in holes beneath a river bank... ...a large rabbit hole.* 1.3 an opening in something that goes right through it. EG *The ants got into the hut through a hole in the wall... He was wearing grey socks with holes in them.* • If something is in holes, especially fabric or clothing, it has a lot of holes in it. EG *His socks were in holes.* N COUNT = cavity; N COUNT ‡ shelter; N COUNT; • PHR : USED AS AC

2 If something that you buy makes a hole in your pocket, savings, etc, it uses up a large amount of your money; an informal expression. EG *The new car made a hole in their savings.* PHR : VB INFLECTS

3 A hole in a law, theory, argument, etc is a fault or weakness that it has. EG *The new tax law has several holes in it.* • If you pick holes in an argument or theory, you find weak points in it so that it is no longer valid; an informal expression. EG *You can pick holes in most of his arguments.* N COUNT + SUPP = flaw; • PHR : VB INFLECTS ‡ criticize

4 You describe a place as a hole when it is very unpleasant to live or work in, for example because it is small, dirty, or dark; an informal use. EG *Why don't you leave this awful hole and come to live with me.* N COUNT = pit, dump

5 If you say that you are in a hole, you mean that you are in a difficult or embarrassing situation; an informal expression. EG *If she took the papers she might find herself in the same hole as her boss.* PHR : USED AS AN A = in a tight spot

6 A hole is also 6.1 one of the nine or eighteen sections of a golf course. EG *He invited me to play a few holes of golf with him.* 6.2 one of the places on a golf course that the ball must drop into, usually marked by a flag. EG *It's not easy to guide the ball into a hole 425 yards away.* • If you get a hole in one in golf, you get the golf ball into the hole with a single stroke. EG *I've never seen anybody get a hole in one.* N COUNT ‡ section; N COUNT = cup; • PHR : USED AS O

7 If something such as a building or ship is holed, holes are made in it by guns or other weapons. EG *The buildings were holed by shells... Two ships were holed during the attack.* V + O ‡ pierce

8 If you hole in a game of golf, you hit the ball so that it goes into the hole. EG *...that superb shot he holed at the seventy-first hole.* V OR V + O

hole out. If you hole out in a game of golf, you finish the course. EG *In the six rounds he played, he never holed out in less than 92.* PHRASAL VB : V + ADV

hole up. If you hole up somewhere or you are holed up there, you hide or shut yourself there, usually so that people can't find you or disturb you; an informal expression. EG *San Francisco was where she holed up... The men were holed up on the top floor of the hotel.* PHRASAL VB : V + ADV + A OR V + O + ADV + A : ONLY PASS

hole beach <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

is happening or is in existence. EG *I haven't known her that long... Sorry it took so long... I won't be long. Stay right here... It was not long before they reached the village... Our oil won't last very much longer... ...Britain's longest surviving transplant patient... This is a difficulty that has long been recognized.*

2 A **long** period of time, event, task, etc lasts for a great amount of time or takes a great amount of time. EG *There was a long pause... I should think it would last quite a long time... They are demanding longer holidays... We sat there for a long while... ...the long hot dry season.* ◊ **longish.** EG *There was a longish pause.*

ADJ QUALIT
≠ short

◊ ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB

3 Something that happened **long** before the present time or before a particular point in time, or happens long after it, happened a great amount of time before it or happens a great amount of time after it. EG *She thought I had guessed long ago... Not long after our arrival a curious thing happened... It was at this point, long before their marriage, that he began to feel doubtful... The shipbuilding industry on the Clyde had long been abandoned.*

ADV, OR ADJ QUALIT : ATTRIB

7 Something that is **no longer** the case, or **no longer** happens, used to be the case but is not the case now, or happened in the past but does not happen now. EG *Maths is no longer a prime requirement for a career in accountancy... We can no longer afford to live there... Suddenly, I couldn't stand it any longer.*

PHR : USED AS ADV SEN
= no more

8 If you say that something will happen **before long**, you mean that it will happen soon. EG *They're bound to catch the poor devil before long.*

PHR : USED AS ADV SEN

9 A **long** period of work or activity lasts for more hours or days than is usual. EG *I'm sorry. It's just been a long day... I work long, hard hours.*

ADJ QUALIT
≠ short

10 **Long** is used in expressions such as 'all year long', 'the whole day long', and 'your whole life long' to say and emphasize that something happens for the whole of a particular period of time. EG *I don't think there was any rain all summer long.*

11 Something that is **long** measures a great distance from one end to the other. EG *She was slender and had long dark hair... ...a long line of cars... She pedalled up the long drive towards the house... ...long Russian names... ...an enormously long room... The women sat at long tables.*

ADJ QUALIT
≠ short

12 **Long** dresses, trousers, sleeves, etc reach to the ankle or wrist rather than, for example, to the calf, knee, or elbow. EG *A tall lean woman in a long dress climbed into a Rolls Royce.*

ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB
= full length

distances at speed as a test of endurance... They took him on long hikes through the hills.

14 **Long** is used when giving information about the length of something or sometimes to ask questions about the length of something. EG *...an area up to 3,000 feet long and 900 feet wide... How long is that side of the triangle?*

AD
AD

15 A **long** book, article, list, programme, film, etc contains a lot of information or a lot of items and takes a lot of time to read, watch, deal with, etc. EG *I sent you rather a long list of questions... It's the longest and most ambitious book she has produced so far... Romeo is a very long and arduous part... It's a long story, I won't bother you with it now.* ◊ **longish.** EG *...a longish novel.*

AD
AT
↑
◊

16 A **long** period of time or a **long** distance is also one that seems to take or last a much greater time than it actually does. EG *It was awful waiting for the phone to ring. Days spread into long months... That was a long two miles!*

AD
AT

17 If someone has a **long** memory, they are able to remember things that happened far back in the past.

AD
AT

18 If you **long** for something, especially something that you are unlikely to get or that is unlikely to happen, you want it very much. EG *They longed for green trees and open spaces... She was exhausted and longing for them to go... They're just longing to see you.*

V+
=

long clean <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The office will be manned over the spring holiday.

man /mæn/, **men; mans, manning, manned.** **Men** is the plural of the noun. **Mans** is the 3rd person singular, present tense, of the verb. 1 A man is 1.1 an adult male human being. EG *Larry was a handsome man in his early fifties... He's a great President but a remarkably boring man... Every man, woman, and child will be taken care of... ...the first man on the moon, Armstrong wasn't it?* 1.2 a human being of either sex. EG *All men are born equal... Darwin concluded that men were descended from apes... ...a deserted island where no man could live.*

N COUNT
! person
≠ woman

N COUNT
! person

2 The word **man** is used in the following expressions.

2.1 **The man in the street** is an ordinary person who is not especially rich or educated or famous, and who is therefore considered to be a typical representative of public taste and opinion. EG *How will these changes affect the man in the street?* 2.2 If a group of people do something **as one man**, they do it at exactly the same time. EG *The whole crowd rose to its feet as one man.* 2.3 If a group of people think something, believe something, etc **to a man**, every one of them thinks or believes it. EG *Congress almost to a man thought that abstract art was undesirable.*

PHR

PHR : USED AS AN A

PHR : USED AS AN A
! all

2.4 If people talk to each other **man to man**, they talk honestly and openly, treating each other as equals. EG *Few people are prepared to talk 'man to man' with the boss... She wanted to speak to her father 'man to man'.* • See also **man-to-man.**

PHR : USED AS AN A

3 You can refer to human beings in general as **man.** EG *Why does man seem to have more diseases than animals?... ...the most dangerous substance known to man.*

N UNCOUNT
! people
= humanity

4 Modern **man**, primitive **man**, etc means all modern people, primitive people, etc considered as a group. EG *Modern man refuses to acknowledge his need for mercy... ...neolithic man.*

N UNCOUNT : ADJ +N

5 People sometimes refer to a man as **the man** instead of 'he' or 'him', especially when they do not like him; an informal use. EG *The man must be mad!... I won't see him anyway. I don't like the man.*

N SING : the+N
= chap, fellow

6 People sometimes talk about **a man** when they want to make a statement about people in general; a fairly informal use. EG *How much can a man stand?... What else can a man do at a time like that?... You'd think they would at least leave a man in peace on a Sunday afternoon.*

N SING : a+N
! one
= you

7 In informal English, a woman's **man** is her husband, lover, or boyfriend. EG *The two women have abandoned their men and are going to spend the evening in town.*

N COUNT : USU POSS+N
! partner
= fellow

get a new man... I never employ extra men, no matter how big the job. 10.3 a servant; an old-fashioned use. • See also **right-hand man.** 10.4 a man who works for or represents a particular company or organization. EG *The man from the New York Times was here to interview us... They always had their trade union man telling them all their rights.* 10.5 one of the pieces that you move in a game of chess or draughts.

N COUNT
= piece

11 People sometimes address a man as 'man' when they are angry or impatient with him. EG *Don't sit there talking, man. Get going!... For heaven's sake, man, can't you see she's had enough?*

N VOC

12 People used to address a man as **my man** or **my good man** when they considered him to be socially inferior to themselves. EG *All right, my man, that will be all for today... Thank you very much, my good man.*

PHR : USED AS VOC

13 If you say that someone is **his own man**, you mean that he is able to make his own decisions and plans without having to obey other people. EG *Listen, I'm my own man and no one's going to tell me when to retire.*

PHR : VB INFLECTS
! be independent

14 If you describe a man as a man's man, you mean that he has qualities which make him popular with other men rather than with women. EG *Theodore Roosevelt was a man's man, through and through.*

PHR : USU USE AS C

15 If something makes a man out of a young man, it causes him to behave like an adult man, rather than a boy; used showing approval. EG *The army made a man out of little Arnold Sims.*

PHR : VB INFLECTS

16 If you are man enough for something, you have the necessary courage or ability to do it; used showing approval. EG *He's not man enough for the job.*

PHR : VB INFLECTS, USU for/to-INF

17 If a difficult or dangerous situation separates the men from the boys or sorts the men from the boys, it shows who can cope with difficulty or danger, and who cannot. EG *Necessity separates the men from the boys.*

PHR : VB INFLECTS

18 If you man something such as a machine, you are in charge of it or available to operate it. EG *They manned the phones all through the night... The rebels refused to man the barricades during the uprising.* • See also **manned.**

V-O

man bicycle <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

This year we netted 50% more than what we earned last year.

net /net/, **nets, netting, netted**; also spelled **nett** in British English for paragraphs 8, 9, and 10. **1** Net is a kind of cloth made of very fine cotton or nylon threads that are woven together so that there are small equal spaces between them and you can see through the cloth. EG *The bride wore a veil of white net... All the windows have net curtains.* • See also **netting**. N UNCOUNT ↑ fabric

2 A **net** is **2.1** a piece of netting which is used, for example, to protect vegetables or fruit from birds or insects. EG *You'd better put a net over your strawberries to keep the birds off.* **2.2** a container or bag made from netting and used, for example, to hold shopping or to keep something in place. **2.3** a bag made from a piece of netting, sometimes one on the end of a pole, which is used for catching animals, especially fish or butterflies. EG *It was only when he had the trout in the net that he looked up... ...a butterfly net.* **2.4** the piece of netting across the centre of a tennis court, badminton court, etc which the ball should go over. EG *Often she would hit an easy one into the net... The net was up and the daily volleyball game was in progress.* **2.5** a framework with netting over it, attached to the back of the goal on a football pitch or a hockey pitch. EG *He slammed the ball into the back of the net.* **2.6** something such as a system that is considered to be controlling or affecting a lot of people or things in some way. EG *The redistribution of national wealth requires that no one should escape the net... All sorts of strange characters are caught within the net.* • See also **hairnet, safety net**. N COUNT ↑ cover; N COUNT; N COUNT ↑ trap; N COUNT ↑ barrier; N COUNT ↑ structure; N COUNT = web

3 If someone **slips through the net**, they escape from something, such as a system or a trap, that was meant to catch them or deal with them. EG *The police are determined not to let him slip through the net a second time.* PHR : VB INFLECTS = get away

4 If you **cast your net wider**, you consider or try a greater variety of things. EG *We must cast our net wider and observe this incident in a broader social context.* PHR : VB AND N INFLECT

5 If you **net** a fish or other animal, you catch it in a net. EG *At last he managed to net the fish.* V+O = land

6 If you **net** something, you manage to get it, especially by using skill. EG *They like revealing how clever they have been in netting what others could not get... He was netting his third and largest fortune.* V+O = acquire

7 If you **net** a particular amount of money, you gain it as profit when all expenses have been paid. EG *The plastics began netting £1 billion a year for the company.* V+O, V+O+O, OR V+O+A *(for)* = bring in

8 A **net** profit or loss is one which remains when everything that should be subtracted from it has been subtracted. EG *That gave him a net profit of just over 23%... Last year he made a profit of £20,000 net.* ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB, OR AFTER N ↑ actual = clear

9 The **net** weight of something is its weight without its container or wrapping. EG *The net weight is 250g... It weighs 250 g net.* ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB, OR AFTER N ↑ actual

10 A **net** result is one that is final, when everything that is necessary has been considered or included. EG *The net effect of these changes is that the diesel car is becoming more attractive... The net result is a massive and growing labour surplus.* ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB

net book <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

My aunt reared a lamb whose mother had died.

rear /rɪə/, **rears, rearing, reared.** 1 The rear of something such as a building or vehicle is the part that is at the back of it. EG *He walked toward the rear of the house... ...seats facing the rear.* ▸ used as an adjective. EG *There was a rear entrance into the post office... I got out and examined the right rear wheel.*

N SING : *the* + N, IF + PREP THEN *of*

▸ ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB

2 The rear of a line of things or people is the position that is at the back of the line. EG *The motorcycles dropped back to a position at the rear of the convoy... Ralph walked in the rear.* ● If someone brings up the rear or takes up the rear, they occupy a place at the back of a line of people or things. EG *Jack brought up the rear.*

N SING : *the* + N, IF + PREP THEN *of*

● PHR : VB INFLECTS

3 Someone's rear is the part of their body that they sit on; an informal use. EG *She slapped him on the rear.*

N COUNT
⇑ buttocks
= behind

4 If you rear children, you bring them up until they are old enough to look after themselves. EG *Geraldo has adopted and reared four children. ...a child reared on self-indulgence.*

V + O
= raise

5 If a person or animal rears young animals, they keep and look after them until they are old enough to be used for food or work, or until they can look after themselves. EG *I used to rear chickens... ...an ideal place for hatching and rearing young turtles.*

V - O
⇑ raise

6 If an animal rears or rears its legs, it moves the front part of its body upwards, so that its front legs are high in the air and it is standing on its back legs. EG *It's difficult to control a rearing horse.*

V OR V - O
⇑ stand

7 If you say that something such as a building or mountain rears over you, you mean that it is very tall and close to you. EG *A tree out in the street reared over the top of the wall.*

V + A *(over)*
⇑ rise
= tower

8 If something unpleasant rears its ugly head, it starts to become apparent. EG *Dissension might so easily have reared its ugly head and wrecked our future plans.*

PHR : VB AND N INFLECT

rear up. If a person or animal rears up, they suddenly move the front part of their body upwards. EG *He reared up on his back legs in total fear.*

PHRASAL VB : V - ADV

rear brain <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The town was rocked by the news of the child's death.

rock /rɒk/, **rocks, rocking, rocked.** 1 Rock is the substance that forms the hardest parts of the surface of the earth. Cliffs and mountains are made of rock. EG *Large masses of rock are constantly falling into the sea... ...a cliff of naked red earth and rock... It was almost like a gorge, with very sheer rock sides.* N UNCOUNT

2 A rock is 2.1 a very large piece of rock that is higher than the land that surrounds it and that can therefore be seen from a long way away. EG *We arranged to meet again at Ayers Rock... The magazine had insisted that he get new and exciting shots of the rock.* 2.2 a piece of rock that sticks up out of the ground or the sea or that has broken away from a mountain or a cliff. EG *I sat down on a rock... Hercule Poirot stood on the cliff overlooking the rocks below.* 2.3 a small stone that you can pick up with your hand; used in American English. EG *She started putting the rocks in his shirt pocket... The crowd howls and screams, rocks are thrown, and the police come running.* N COUNT : ALSO IN NAMES AFTER N / N COUNT = boulder, stone / N COUNT = pebble

3 When something rocks or when you rock it, you make it move slowly and regularly backwards and forwards or from side to side. EG *I snatched away the stool she was rocking with her heel... Our parents cuddle and hug us, and rock us gently back and forth... She sat there, rocking gently backwards and forwards.* V-ERG = sway

4 If a building or tree rocks or if an explosion or blow rocks it, it shakes. EG *They heard him blunder against the trunk which rocked violently.* V-ERG

5 If something rocks a country or society, it causes feelings of shock, horror, or fear in that country or society. EG *Wars, plagues, earthquakes, and famine rocked many an earlier social order... France was rocked by an outbreak of violent crime.* V+O = shake

6 If you say that you do not want to rock the boat, you mean that you do not want to do anything that might cause problems or upset people; an informal expression. EG *We all keep very quiet and do nothing to rock the boat... He refuses to meddle with anything that might rock the boat.* PHR WITH BROAD NEG : VB INFLECTS

7 If you rock with laughter, you laugh a lot and for a long time. PHR : VB INFLECTS

8 Rock is also 8.1 music with simple tunes and a very strong beat that is played and sung, usually loudly, by a small group of people with electric guitars and drums. EG *The boy's been playing very loud rock for an hour in the bathroom... ...a rock concert... He has had success with rock groups... ...rock stars.* 8.2 a sweet made in long, hard sticks and sold at popular tourist places. EG *I got a stick of rock.* N UNCOUNT, OR N BEFORE N = pop music / N UNCOUNT

9 If you have an alcoholic drink such as whisky on the rocks, you have it with lumps of ice. EG *I think I'll just have some vermouth on the rocks.* PHR AFTER N = with ice

10 If someone's marriage or relationship is on the PHR : USED AS AN

rock bright <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

The prime minister skirted the problem by insisting that it was not a financial question at all.

skirt /skɜːt/, **skirts, skirting, skirted.** 1 A **skirt** is a piece of clothing worn by women and girls, which fastens at the waist and hangs down from the waist to above or below the knees. EG *She was dressed in a very short skirt.* N COUNT ; garment

2 The **skirt** of a dress or coat is the part which hangs below the waist. EG *She danced about, making the skirt of her dress flare out... There always seemed to be a child clutching at her skirts.* N COUNT, SING = PL

3 A **skirt** is also a cover which is put onto a machine in order to prevent accidents when the machine is working. EG *...a radiation-proof lead skirt covered the moving parts.* N COUNT = guard

4 Something that **skirts** an area is situated around the edge or the outside of it. EG *A flagged path skirted the house... ...a new road skirting the northern suburbs.* V+O ; pass = border

5 If you **skirt** something, you go around the edge or the outside of it. EG *As I walked through the lobby, I had to skirt a group of ladies... They skirted round a bus.* V-O, OR V-A (round/around) ; pass

6 If you **skirt** a subject or question, you avoid dealing with it, usually because it is difficult or controversial. EG *He was skirting the issue. 'Get to the point!' I said.* V-O, OR V-A (round/around) ; bypass

7 **Skirt** is an offensive term used by some men to refer to a woman when they are thinking of her in a sexual way. N UNCOUNT

skirt cake <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Andrew thought it was best to spring his decision on the family at dinner: he would be leaving that night.

spring /sprɪŋ/, **springs, springing, sprang, sprung.** Sprang is the usual form of the past tense of the verb, but sprung is sometimes used. Sprung is the past participle of the verb. 1 Spring is the season between winter and summer. In the spring the weather begins to get warmer and leaves and plants start to grow again. EG *It would have been better to have waited until the spring... Each spring an immense migration begins... He left in the spring of 1956.* N UNCOUNT/COUNT

2 A spring is 2.1 a coiled piece of wire which returns to its original shape when it is pressed or twisted. EG *One day they would get a real sofa, with springs... ...a watch spring.* 2.2 a pool that is formed where water comes up through the ground. EG *...a mountain spring.....hot volcanic springs.* N COUNT; ↑ coil; N COUNT

3 When a person or animal springs, they jump upwards or forwards suddenly and quickly. EG *She sprang to her feet and faced him... She sprung at him, and aimed a wild blow at his face... The panther crouched, ready to spring... They sprang to attention.* V : USU + A

4 If something springs in a particular direction, it moves suddenly and quickly. EG *Hands sprang up... The door of the safe had sprung open.* V + A; = fly

5 Spring is used in expressions such as 'spring into action' and 'spring to life' when you are saying that something starts or comes into existence very quickly and suddenly. EG *A computer will not spring into action without something powering it... At last factories sprang to life again.* V + A

6 If one thing springs from something else, it is the result of the other thing or it started there. EG *These problems spring from different causes... This is a strong indication that the two groups sprang from common stock... Her hostility to him sprang out of sheer envy.* V + A (from/out of); ↑ come

7 If you ask someone where they have sprung from, you are asking them where they have come from in a rather surprised way, because they have appeared unexpectedly. V + A (from)

8 If a boat, container, etc springs a leak, it starts to let water or some other liquid in or out through a hole or crack. EG *The water tank had sprung several leaks.* PHR : VB AND N INFLECT

9 If you spring some news or a surprise on someone, you tell them some unexpected news or ask them to do something that surprises them. EG *It was then that I sprang my surprise... She couldn't understand why this should be sprung on her at such short notice.* V + O : IF + PREP THEN on

10 If you spring someone from prison or some other form of captivity, you help them escape; an informal V + O : IF + PREP THEN from/out

spring cap <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

After dinner the duchess had a bad turn.

turn /tɜ:n/, **turns, turning, turned.** 1 When you turn or when you turn your head, you move your body or your head so that you are facing in a different direction. EG *He turned to Jan and began to explain... She turned and walked away... They kept turning round to smile at friends... 'You're crying.'–'Nonsense,' Etta said, turning her head away.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *He made a smart military turn, clicking his heels.*

V OR V+O : USU + A ▸ N COUNT

2 When you turn something or when it turns, it moves round, or rolls or flips over, so that the front part or top part faces in a different direction or so that the direction it faces in keeps changing. EG *I have turned the TV to the wall... The cog wheels started to turn... I turned the saucer over to look at the markings underneath... She idly turned the pages of a magazine... He turned the book upside down... She turned over, face against the sand.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *...with an agile turn of the wrist.*

V-ERG : USU + A ▸ N COUNT ≠ movement

3 When you turn a knob, key, switch, etc, you hold it and twist your hand, for example so that something opens, is locked, or starts working. EG *He turned the handle and pushed open the door... The key turned easily in the lock... Turn the gas as low as possible.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *The engine started second turn.*

V-ERG ≠ move ▸ N COUNT

4 If you turn something, for example a gun, on a person or thing, you aim or point it in their direction. EG *They turned their guns on the crowd... She turned green eyes on him.*

V+O+A

5 When you turn in a particular direction or turn a corner, you change the direction in which you are moving or travelling. EG *You come over a bridge and turn sharply to the right... Turn left here... He turns down a side street... Howard turns the van towards the exit... The van turned into the Bristol Road.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *There was a long line of cars waiting to make the turn into the campus.*

V OR V-ERG. OR V +O ▸ N COUNT ≠ move

6 Where a road, path, river, etc turns, it has a bend or curve in it. EG *The road finally widened and turned into a courtyard.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *...a turn in the road.*

V : USU + A ▸ N COUNT

7 If you turn part of a piece of cloth or paper in a particular direction, you fold it. EG *They undress together. They turn down the duvet... Her dress was all crumpled and turned up at the back.*

V+O-A

8 If you turn to a particular page in a book, magazine, etc, you find that page. EG *Turn to page 345*

V+A (TO) ≠ GO

13 If something turns white, sour, cold, etc or if something else turns it white, sour, etc, it becomes different by acquiring the quality mentioned. EG *My black hair has turned completely grey... It will turn the water blue... Things were turning nasty.*

V-ERG+C

14 When someone turns a particular age, they pass that age. When it has turned a particular time, it is past that time. EG *Those who had turned fifteen could leave if they wanted to... 'What time is it?'–'Just turned three.'*

V+O (NUM)

15 When the tide turns, it starts coming in or going out.

V

16 If milk turns or is turned, it becomes sour.

V-ERG

17 If you turn your ankle, you injure it by twisting it accidentally into an unnatural position.

V+O ≠ sprain, twist

18 When someone turns a cartwheel or a somersault, they do one.

V+O

19 When someone turns a wooden or metal object that they are making, they shape it using a lathe.

V+O

20 If it is your turn to do something, you now have the right, chance, or duty to do it, and this is fair because other people have done it before you or will do it after you. EG *It is his turn to take the children to school... He stood in the queue waiting his turn.*

N COUNT : USU POSS-N ≠ go

21 When you refer to the turn of the century, decade, year, etc, you are referring to the period of time covering the end of the century, decade, or year you are referring to and the beginning of the next one. EG *These issues have preoccupied sociology since the turn of the century.*

N SING : *the*-N-*of*

22 A turn is also 22.1 a road which leads away from the side of another road, or a junction. EG *I think we missed our turn back there.* 22.2 a change in something that is happening or being done. EG *In that year things took a sharp turn for the worse... ...every twist and turn in government economic policy... Employers, needless to say, are not too happy about this turn of events.* 22.3 a slight attack of illness; an informal use. EG *Mrs Reilly is having one of her turns.* 22.4 a short, amusing entertainment, usually done as part of a larger performance. EG *...a comedy turn.* 22.5 a short, gentle walk; a rather old-fashioned use. EG *She's taking a turn in the garden.*

N COUNT ≠ turning
N COUNT+SUPP
N COUNT ≠ fit
N COUNT
N COUNT ≠ stroll

23 If you do someone a good turn, you do something that helps or benefits them. If you do someone a bad turn, you do something that causes problems for them.

PHR : USED AS O/C/S

24 If you experience a particular thing at every turn, you experience it every time you try to do something. EG *We were thwarted at every turn.*

PHR : USED AS AN A

turn porter <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

He willed the house to his wife but the business went to his son.

will /wɪl/, **wills**, **willing**, **willed**. 1 You use will 1.1 to refer to something that is going to happen in the future. EG *The gardens will be opened to the public later this month... Inflation is rising and will continue to rise... Perhaps this time it won't rain... That wil be best for all of us, won't it?... Next week we will be reporting on the state of the Health Service.. 'It'll be good to see the mountains again.'-'Yes, it will.'* 1.2 with 'I' and 'we' when you are saying that you intend to do something. EG *I will see you tomorrow... I will never betray you... I'll be back in a half-hour... 'You still haven't told me anything.'-'I will.'* MODAL / MODAL : WITH I / WE

2 You use will in questions 2.1 to ask someone about what is going to happen in the future. EG *Will I get paid?... Will I hate school?... What will I do if he doesn't come?... Shall I speak to Mr Wolfe or will you?* 2.2 to ask someone what they intend to do. EG *Where will you live?... Will you be coming in later?* 2.3 as an informal way of inviting someone to do something or of offering someone something. EG *Will you stay for lunch?... Will you have a whisky, Doctor?* 2.4 to ask or tell someone to do something. EG *Will you do me a favour?... Please keep an eye on him, will you?... Will you shut up!... You won't forget the canary, will you?... Won't you change your mind?* MODAL / MODAL / MODAL = would, could

3 You can use will to give an order to someone; a fairly formal use. EG *You will forget this conversation immediately... You will please go into the other room.* MODAL

will already have gathered that I don't like her... I suspect you will have seen them.

6 Will is 6.1 the determination to do something and to fight or make an effort if someone or something tries to stop you. EG *He lacked will and ambition... She lost her will to live... She has a very strong will... Their marriage became a fierce battle of wills.* 6.2 the power to control your mind. EG *She was able to stop herself by an effort of will.* ● See also free will. N UNCOUNT / N UNCOUNT = will-power

7 If something is someone's will, it is something that they want or wish for, especially when they have great power or authority. EG *I must abide by the will of the people... It is the will of Allah... We never have had the courage to defy his expressed will.* N SING : WITH POSS = wishes

8 The word will is also used in the following expressions. 8.1 If something is done against your will, it is done even though you do not want it to be done. EG *Do you always make people drink against their will?* 8.2 If you can do something at will, you can do it when you want and as much as you want. EG *Chang told us that we could wander around at will... He can change his personality at will.* 8.3 When you say 'where there's a will, there's a way', you mean that if you are determined enough to do something, you will find a way of doing it. 8.4 If you do something with a will, you do it with a lot of enthusiasm and energy. EG *She attacked the garden with a will.* PHR : USED AS AN A / PHR / PHR : USED AS AN A

9 If you will something to happen, you make it happen or try to make it happen by using mental effort rather than physical means. EG *I willed my trembling legs to walk straight... I willed my feet to grow... These things are willed to happen.* V-O-(TO-INF

10 If you will something, you want it to happen; a formal or old-fashioned use. EG *He never willed this outcome... I must do whatever God wills.* V-O = wish

11 A will is a document in which you declare what you want to happen to your money and property when you die. EG *Has Desmond made a will?... There's nothing for me in Grandfather's will.* N COUNT

12 If you will something to someone, you leave it to them in your will when you die. EG *He willed everything he had to Vietnamese charities.* V-O-A (TO)

13 ● See also willing.

will can <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The road winds a lot before it reaches the casle.

wind, winds, winding, winded, wound. The word wind is pronounced /wɪnd/ for paragraphs 1-10 and /waɪnd/ for paragraphs 11-13 and the phrasal verbs. Winded is the past tense and past participle of the verbs in paragraphs 4 and 6, and wound is the past tense and past participle of the verbs in paragraphs 11-13 and the phrasal verbs. 1 A wind is a current of air that is moving across the earth's surface. EG *The wind had dropped considerably... ...poppies fluttering in the wind... .There was a fierce wind blowing... ...a gust of wind.* [N COUNT/UNCOUNT]

2 You can refer in a literary way to something that influences events as a wind of some kind. EG *...the wind of change... The nation was left to the cold winds of budgetary control.* [N PART]

3 Your wind is your ability to breathe easily. You can lose your wind when you do something physically energetic. EG *I had to stop and regain my wind before I could carry on.* • See also second wind. [N SING WITH DETPOSS = breath]

4 If you are winded by something such as a blow, the air is suddenly knocked out of your lungs so that you have difficulty breathing for a short time. EG *I was winded by the force of his punch.* [V-O : USU PASS]

5 Wind is the air that you sometimes swallow with food or drink, or gas that is produced in your intestines, which causes an uncomfortable feeling; a fairly informal use. EG *She said she suffered from wind.* [N UNCOUNT = flatulence]

6 If you wind a baby, you pat its back in order to help it to release air from its stomach; a fairly informal use. [V-O = burp]

7 The wind section of an orchestra or band is the group of people who produce musical sounds by blowing into their instruments. [N BEFORE N]

8 If you refer to what someone says as wind, you mean that it is foolish or meaningless; an informal use. EG *That's all a lot of wind.* [N UNCOUNT = hot air]

9 When someone breaks wind, they release air from their intestines through their anus; a rather formal expression. [PHR : VB INFLECTS]

10 The word wind is also used in the following expressions. 10.1 If someone who is intending to do something gets the wind up, they become very afraid, usually with the result that they decide not to do it after all; an informal expression. 10.2 If you get wind of something, you hear about it, especially when someone else did not want you to know about it; a fairly informal expression. EG *The British Ambassador got wind of it, and La Fayette was arrested.* [PHR : VB INFLECTS = take fright] [PHR : VB INFLECTS]

10.3 If a particular event is in the wind, it is likely to happen; a fairly informal expression. EG *A trip to India may be in the wind.* [PHR : USED AS AN A]

10.4 If you put the wind up someone, you make them feel afraid; an informal expression. 10.5 If you sail close to the wind, you take a risk by doing or saying something that is only just legal or acceptable. [PHR : VB INFLECTS = scare] [PHR : VB INFLECTS]

10.6 If something takes the wind out of your sails, it suddenly makes you much less confident in what you are doing or saying. EG *His statement took a great deal of the wind out of her sails.* [PHR : VB INFLECTS ? deflate]

10.7 If you throw caution to the wind, you stop worrying about the risks or danger involved in a particular action, and you do it. EG *Throwing caution to the wind, I barged into the director's office.* [PHR : VB INFLECTS]

10.8 If you want to find out which way the wind is blowing, you want to find out what is likely to happen, for example whether a particular plan is likely to be accepted. [PHR : USED AS O]

11 If a road, river, line of people, etc winds in a particular direction, it goes in that direction with a lot of bends or twists in it. EG *The river winds through the town... ...a dark hall with a big staircase winding up from it... The procession wound its way through the sunlit streets.* ◊ **winding.** EG *...the winding road leading to the Castle.* [V-A OR V-O (DETPOSS - WAY) - A = zigzag, snake] [◊ ADJ CLASSIF]

12 When you wind something flexible round something else, you wrap it round it several times. EG *Wind the wire round the screws until it is taut... I wet the cloths and wound them around my head.* [V-O-A (round around) = twist, coil]

13 When you wind a mechanical device, for example a watch or a clock, you turn a knob, key, or handle on it round and round in order to make it operate. [V-O]

14 See also winded.

wind strong <<<= Use BOTH these Words in a sentence

Appendix 2.2: materials used in chapters 3 and 5
LDOCE entries

ALZ94a

LexArab 5

Name _____ Course _____

This booklet consists of 20 pages. Each page contains a sentence with an underlined word and a dictionary definition of that word like this:

Who is game for a walk in this cold weather?	2.2

1.1 **game**[1] /geim/ *n* 1 [C] a form of play or sport, or one example or type of this: *Football is a game which doesn't interest me.*|*Let's have a game of cards.*|*The children were in the garden, playing a game of hide-and-seek.*|
1.2 *Chess and draughts are* board games. 2 [C] a single part of a set into which a match is divided, e.g. in tennis, BRIDGE[3], etc. 3 [U] wild animals, birds, and fish which are hunted or fished for food, esp. as a sport: *Pheasants and partridges are* game birds.|*A strong red*
1.4 *wine goes well with game.* —see also BIG GAME 4 [C] *infml* a profession or activity, esp. one in which people
1.5 compete against each other: *the advertising game*|*Can you help me plan the meeting — I'm new to this game.* 5 [C] *infml* a trick or secret plan: *What's your little game, then?*|*Don't play games with me — just tell me what you want.*|*I'll tell you what we're planning for Jane's birthday, as long as you promise not to* give the game away. (=tell Jane about it) 6 make game of *old-fash* to
1.6 laugh at or make fun of 7 on the game *sl, esp. BrE* in
1.7 the business of being a PROSTITUTE 8 the game's 'up your/our trick or plan has been found out and can succeed no further —see also GAMES, FAIR GAME, MUG'S
1.8 GAME, WAR GAME, the name of the game (NAME[1]), play the game (PLAY[1]), two can play at that game (TWO); see RECREATION (USAGE)

game[2] *adj* 1 brave, determined, and ready for action: *The little boy was hurt by the fall, but he was game enough to get up and try again.* 2 [F (for)] willing: *"Who's game for a swim?" "I'm game!"* [+*to-v*] *I'm game to try.* —~ly *adv* 2.1 2.2

game[3] *v* [I] *fml* to GAMBLE at cards and other games of chance: *She spends every evening at the* gaming tables. 3.1

game[4] *adj* [A] *old-fash for* GAMMY 4.1

The definition is complex. This is because the underlined word has many different meanings.

What you have to do is this: read the definition and decide which meaning fits the underlined word in the sentence. Write the number of the correct definition in the box beside the sentence. In the example the correct answer is [2.2], so you write 2.2 in the box beside the example.

Next you have to show that you understand the particular meaning of the underlined word. You do this by writing a short sentence in the box underneath the definition. Your sentence should include the two words on the top of the box like this:

game adventure .<<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence
He is always game for adventure.

Thank you very much for your help

S.Al-Zi'abi CALS
Swansea University
Swansea SA2 8PP

My uncle was proud of the tiger he <u>bagged</u> while he was working on the Indian Railway.

1·1 **bag**[1] /bæg/ *n* **1 a** a container made of soft material which usu. opens at the top: *a shopping bag|a golf bag|a paper/polythene bag* **b** a small bag used esp. by a woman for her personal things; HANDBAG: *Don't leave your bag in the office when you go to lunch.* **c** a bag used by someone travelling; piece of LUGGAGE: *to pack one's bags*
1·2 —see picture at CONTAINER **2** [(of)] also **bag·ful** /-fʊl/ (*pl.* **bagfuls, bagsful**)— the amount a bag will hold: *a*
1·3 *bag of sweets|two bags of rice* **3** *derog* an unpleasant
1·4 woman; BAGGAGE (4): *You silly old bag!* **4** [*usu. sing.*] the number of birds or animals shot or caught on any
1·5 one occasion: *We had a good bag that day.* **5 bag and baggage** with all one's belongings: *They threw her out*
1·6 *of the house bag and baggage.* **6 bag of bones** a very
1·7 thin person or animal **7 in the bag** *infml* certain to be won, gained, etc.: *We're sure to win. The match is in the*
1·8 *bag.* **8 one's bag** *infml* something one particularly likes, is good at, or has special knowledge about: *I'm afraid I can't tell you anything about it — computers*
1·9 *aren't really my bag.* **9 pull something out of the bag** to succeed by making an effort at a late stage: *He was exhausted but still managed to pull something out of the bag to win the race.* —see also BAGS, MIXED BAG, SLEEPING BAG, **let the cat out of the bag** (CAT)

2·1 **bag**[2] *v* **-gg-** **1** [T] to put (material or objects in large
2·2 quantities) into a bag or bags **2** [T] to kill or catch
2·3 (animals or birds): *We bagged a rabbit.* **3** [T] *infml* to take possession of: *Try to bag a couple of seats at the*
2·4 *back for us.* **4** [I (OUT)] *infml* to hang loosely, like a bag: *His trousers bagged (out) at the knees.*

bag actor <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

If you cannot convince her that your ideas are really good, then you would always try blinding her with a few technical terms.

1·1 **blind**[1] /blaind/ *adj* 1 unable to see: *blind from birth| blind in one eye* [also *n, the*+P] *a special library service for the blind* —see also COLOUR-BLIND; see BLIND[2] (US-
1·2 AGE) 2 [A] intended for blind people: *a blind school*
1·3 3 [F (to)] unable or unwilling to recognize or understand (something bad): *They seem to be blind to the possible consequences of this policy.|He is blind to her faults.*
1·4 4 without thought, judgment, or reason: *blind haste|an-*
1·5 *ger|in a blind panic|blind faith/loyalty* 5 operating without purpose or human control: *the blind forces of*
1·6 *nature* 6 done wholly by using instruments within an aircraft and without looking outside: *blind flying|flying*
1·7 *blind|a blind landing* 7 at or in which it is difficult to
1·8 see: *a dangerous blind corner/turning* 8 [A] *sl* (used to add force to an expression) slightest: *I tried to warn her, but she didn't take a blind bit of notice.|It doesn't*
1·9 *make a blind bit of difference.* 9 (as) blind as a bat *infml* having difficulty in seeing: *I'm as blind as a bat*
1·10 *without my glasses.* 10 (a case of) the blind leading the blind people with little information advising people
1·11 with even less 11 turn a blind eye (to) to pretend not to see or notice (something, esp. something illegal): *You shouldn't really drink here, but I'm willing to turn a blind eye (to it).* —compare turn a deaf ear to (DEAF); see also effing and blinding (EFF) —~ly *adv* —~ness *n* [U]

blind[2] *v* [T] 1 to make unable to see, either for a time or for ever: *The glare of the headlights blinded me for a moment.|blinded by the smoke|The soldier was blinded in battle.|blinded in one eye|a blinding flash of light* 2 [(to)] to make unable to notice or understand; take away the good sense or judgment of: *His determination blinded him to all the difficulties.|blinded by emotion* 3 blind with science to confuse or fill with admiration by a show of detailed or specialist knowledge
■ USAGE Blinded and deafened are used when we mention a particular event in which a person becomes blind or deaf: *He was* blinded *by dust/*blinded *in the war.|The music was so loud I was nearly* deafened. For describing a state use the adjectives blind, deaf: *He became* blind.|*a* deaf *child.*

2·1
2·2
2·3

blind[3] *n* 1 also window shade *AmE*— a piece of cloth or other material, which can usu. be rolled or folded up for covering a window —see also VENETIAN BLIND, and see picture at KITCHEN 2 a way of hiding the truth by giving a false idea: *His newspaper job was only a blind for his real business, which was receiving stolen goods.* 3 *esp. AmE* a hidden place from which to watch animals, esp. when hunting; HIDE[3]

3·1
3·2
3·3

blind afraid <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The girl hated having her hair dangling around her shoulders, so she decided to have it bobbed.

1.1 **bob**[1] /bɒb‖bɑ:b/ *n* -bb- **1** [I+*adv/prep*;T+*obj*+*adv/prep*] to (cause to) move up or down quickly or repeatedly: *The small boat was bobbing on the rough water of*
1.2 *the lake.|a little bird bobbing its head up and down* **2** [T] (of a woman, esp. in former times) to make (a CURTSY) quickly —bob *n*
bob up *phr v* [I] to appear or reappear quickly or suddenly: *If you try to sink an apple in water it keeps bobbing up to the surface.|I haven't seen him around for a while, but I'm sure he'll bob up again soon.*

2.1 **bob**[2] *n* bob *infml old-fash* a former British coin, the SHILLING (=5p): *It'll cost you ten bob.*

3.1 **bob**[3] *v* -bb- [T] to cut (a woman's hair) so as to be hanging loosely to shoulder-length or shorter: *to have one's hair bobbed* —bob *n*: *to wear one's hair in a bob*
Bob *n* Bob's your uncle! /ˌ· · ˈ··/ *BrE* (used for showing satisfaction that a way of doing something has been found): *If the picture goes, just bang the television a few times, and Bob's your uncle!* (=the picture will come back)

bob kitchen <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

The lorry was coasting down the slope when the accident happened.

1.1 **coast**[1] /kəʊst/ *n* 1 [*the* + S;C] the land on or close to the edge of the sea: *The ship sank three miles off the French coast.*|*a hotel on the coast*|*the southern and eastern coasts of Britain* —see SHORE (USAGE) 2 [C] *esp. AmE* an act of coasting down a hill 3 the coast is/was clear *inf/ml* all danger has/had gone: *As soon as the coast was clear the two thieves made their getaway.*

2.1 **coast**[2] *v* [I (along, down, ALONG)] to keep moving, esp. down a hill, without using any effort or power: *The children were coasting along on their bicycles/coasting down the slope.*|(fig.) *She coasted through her exams.* —compare FREEWHEEL

coast·al /ˈkəʊstl/ *adj* [A *no comp.*] on or near the coast: *a coastal resort*|*coastal waters*|*coastal fishing*

coast·er /ˈkəʊstəʳ/ *n* 1 a ship which sails from port to port along a coast 2 a small round mat placed under a bottle, glass, etc., to protect a table top or other surface —see also ROLLER COASTER

coast appear <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

No matter how hard I pushed it, the door was stuck fast.

1.1 **fast**[1] /fɑ:st‖fæst/ *adj* 1 quick; moving or able to move quickly: *a fast car|the fast train to New York* (=one that travels fast and stops at few stations)|*the fast growth of the oil industry|fast music|a fast runner* —see FASTNESS (USAGE) 2 taking a short time compared to other people or things: *a fast journey* 3 firmly fixed and unlikely to move or change: *The colours aren't fast, so be careful when you wash these towels.|The label says this shirt is* colour fast.|*He* made *the rope* fast (=tied it firmly) *to the metal ring.* 4 [F; after *n*] (of a clock) showing a time that is later than the true time: *My watch is fast|is five minutes fast.* 5 having or being a high photographic speed: *a fast lens|a fast film* 6 [A] allowing quick movement: *There had been an accident in the fast lane of the highway.|a fast pitch|Cook it in a fast* (=very hot) *oven.* 7 *old-fash* wanting too much pleasure and spending too much money: *James belongs to a very fast set at college.* 8 fast and furious (esp. of games and amusements) noisy and active 9 in the 'fast lane taking part in the most exciting or risky activities: *With all her money and film star friends, she really lives her life in the fast lane.* 10 pull a fast one (on) *infml* to deceive (someone) with a trick —see also FASTNESS, SPEED

2.1 **fast**[2] *adv* 1 quickly: *She drives very fast.|Their population is growing fast.* 2 firmly; tightly: *The car was stuck fast in the mud.* 3 ahead of a correct time: *The train's running five minutes fast.* 4 *old use* close; near: *a brook fast by* 5 fast asleep sleeping deeply 6 play fast and loose with *old-fash* to treat in a selfishly careless way —see also thick and fast (THICK[2])

3.1 **fast**[3] *v* [I] to eat little or no food, esp. for religious reasons: *Muslims fast during Ramadan.*

4.1 **fast**[4] *n* an act or period of fasting: *Friday is a fast day.|He* broke his fast *by drinking some milk.*

fas·ten /'fɑ:sən‖'fæ-/ *v* [I;T] to make or become firmly fixed or closed: *The bag won't fasten properly.|He fastened his coat.|Fasten your seat belts.|I fastened the pages together with a paperclip.|She fastened the notice to the board.|She fastened the loose edge down with some glue.|He fastened on his sword|fastened his sword on.|*

fast arm <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Journalists always fish for interesting information.

1.1 fish[1] /fɪʃ/ *n* fish *or* fishes 1 [C] an animal which lives in water, is covered in SCALES[2] (1), and uses its FINS and tail to swim: *We caught three little fishes/several fish.* | *to gut/fillet a fish* 2 [U] the flesh of a fish when used as food: *We had fish/some fish/a piece of fish for dinner.* | *What kind of fish is this?* | *I love* fish and chips. (=fish covered with BATTER[2] and cooked in deep oil, served with CHIPS) 3 [C] *infml* a person of the stated kind (used esp. in the phrases a cold/odd/queer fish) 4 have 'other fish to fry *infml* to have other affairs to attend to, esp. that are more important 5 like a fish out of water uncomfortable because one is in a strange place or situation —see also COLD FISH, a pretty kettle of fish (KETTLE)

1.2

1.3

1.4

1.5

2.1 fish[2] *v* 1 [I (for)] to try to catch fish: *Let's go fishing.* | *We're fishing for trout.* 2 [T] to catch fish in (an area of water): *This river has been fished too much.* 3 [I+ABOUT, AROUND, for] *infml* to search: *She was fishing around in her handbag trying to find the key.* | *From the way he spoke I could tell he didn't know and was just fishing for information.* | *Stop* fishing for compliments! (=trying to make someone say something admiring) 4 fish in troubled waters to try to gain advantage out of other people's troubles

2.2

2.3

2.4

2.5 fish sthg./sbdy. — out *phr v* [T] *infml* 1 to pull from the water: *Jean fell into the river, and we had to fish her out.* 2 to bring out, esp. after searching: *He fished out a coin/a handkerchief from his pocket.*

2.6 fish sthg. — up *phr v* [T] to pull up, as if catching a fish: *He fished up an old shoe out of the lake.*

fish red <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Professor Brain has a lot of go in him.

go[1] /gəʊ/ *v* went /went/, gone /gɒn||gɔ:n/*3rd person sing. present* goes

1.1 ■ to move or travel **1** [I] to leave a place (so as to reach another); DEPART: *I wanted to go, but she wanted to stay.*|*It's late; I must go/I must be going.*|*When does the train go?*|*He went early.*|*I left my pen on the desk and now it's gone; who's taken it?*|(fig.) *The summer is going fast.* —compare COME[1]; see also be going to (GO[1]);
1.2 see USAGE **2** [I+*adv/prep*] to travel or move in a particular way or in a particular direction: *We went by bus.*|*It can go by post.*|*He went away and left me.*|*The car's going too fast.*|*Where are you going?*|*We went to France for our holidays.*|*We're going* (=are intending to go) *to my parents' for Christmas.*|*His hand went to his pocket.*|(fig.) *Your suggestion will go* (=be sent) *before the committee.*|(fig.) *I don't know where all my money*
1.3 *goes (to)!* **3** [I+*v-ing*] a to (travel somewhere in order to) do the stated activity: *He's gone shopping.*|*We're going swimming this afternoon.*|*She went house-hunting at the weekend.* b *infml* to perform the stated undesirable action: *Don't go blaming yourself!*|*It's a secret, so don't go telling everyone about it!*

1.4 ■ to be in or pass into a particular state **4** [L+*adj*] to pass into a different, often less favourable state, either by a natural change or by changing on purpose; become: *Her hair's/She's going grey.*|*The milk went sour.*|*He's gone mad.*|*This used to be a state school, but it's gone independent.*|*The company has gone bankrupt.*|*He*
1.5 *went white with anger.* —see BECOME (USAGE) **5** [L+*adv/adj*] to be or remain in a particular usu. undesirable state: *After his enemy's threats he went in fear of his life.*|*Her complaints went unnoticed.*|*Should a murderer go free/go unpunished?*|*When the crops fail, the*
1.6 *people go hungry.* **6** [I] to become weak, damaged, or worn out: *My voice has gone because of my cold.*|*These old shoes are beginning to go.*

1.7 ■ to start an activity or perform an action **7** [I] to start an action or activity: *All the preparations for the project have been completed, so we're ready to go.*|*The signal to begin a race is "One, two, three, go!" or "Ready, steady, go!"*|*If we don't* get going *on this work soon it'll never*
1.8 *be ready in time.* **8** [I] (of a machine) to work (properly): *This clock doesn't go.*|*I can't get the car to go.* **9** [T]
1.9 a to make the stated sound: *Ducks go "quack".*|*The guns went "boom".* b *BrE nonstandard* to say: *So then she goes "Don't you ever do that again!", and he laughs.*
1.10 **10** [I+*adv/prep*] to make a particular movement: *When he was explaining it, he went like this with his hands.*

[+*v-ing*] *Responsibility goes with becoming a father.* **3** 1.11
infml to spend time socially, or (*euph*) sexually, with (someone of the opposite sex): *He goes with a different girl every week.* **4 go with the crowd/the times/the** 1.12
stream to behave or think in the same way as most people

go without (sthg.) *phr v* [I;T–*obj/v-ing*] **1** to succeed 1.13
in living without (something); DO WITHOUT: *She went without sleep/without sleeping for five days.*|*We can't afford it, so we'll just have to go without.* **2** it goes with- 1.14
out saying it is clear without needing to be stated: *If you take a job as a journalist, it goes without saying that sometimes you'll have to work at weekends.*

go[2] *n* goes *infml* **1** [C] one's turn, esp. in a game: *It's* 2.1
my go now. **2** [C (at)] *esp. BrE* an attempt to do some- 2.2
thing: *"I can't open this jar." "Let me* have a go.*"*|*He had several goes at the exam before he passed.* **3** [U] 2.3
esp. BrE an active lively quality; VITALITY: *The children are full of go. They run and play all day.*|*She's got plenty of go, and is sure to do well in her job.* —see also GET-UP-AND-GO **4** [C *usu. sing.*] *BrE old-fash* an (awkward 2.4
or strange) state of affairs: *This is a bit of a rum go!* **5** 2.5
(**all**) **the go** *infml* very fashionable **6 have a go** *infml,* 2.6
esp. BrE a to complain: *My boyfriend is sure to have a go at me for spending so much money.* b to attempt to catch or stop a wrongdoer by force: *This criminal may be armed, so the police advise the public against having a go.* **7 it's all go** *BrE infml* it is very busy: *It's all go in* 2.7
the postal service at Christmas time! **8** (it's) **no go** 2.8
infml it has not happened or it will not happen: *I tried to persuade her to accept your plan, but (it was) no go, I'm afraid.* —see also NO-GO AREA **9 make a go of** *infml* 2.9
to make a success of: *Do you think they'll ever make a go of their marriage?* **10 on the go** *infml* working all the 2.10
time or very busy: *I've been on the go all day and I'm worn out.*

go jug <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Everyone knew that he was a grass, so we all avoided him.

1.1 **grass**[1] /grɑːs‖græs/ *n* **1** [U] various kinds of common
1.2 low-growing green plants whose blades and stems are eaten by sheep, cows, etc., on hills and in fields **2** [U]
1.3 land covered by grass: *Don't walk on the grass.*|*I'm just going to cut the grass.* (=LAWN) **3** [C *usu. pl.*;U] any of various green plants with tall straight stems and flat
1.4 blades: *He hid behind some tall grasses.*|*There was an attractive arrangement of dried grasses in the vase.* **4** [C] *BrE sl* someone, often a criminal, who informs the
1.5 police about the (other) people concerned in a crime;
1.6 INFORMER —see also SUPERGRASS **5** [U] *sl for* MARIJUANA **6 let the grass grow under one's feet** [*usu. in negatives*] to delay action; waste time in inactivity: *As soon as you approve it I'll get started — I'm not one to let*
1.7 *the grass grow under my feet!* **7 out to grass/out to** pasture *infml* no longer working: *Some of these old judges are nearly 80, you know; it's time they were* put out to grass!

2.1 **grass**[2] *v* **1** [T (OVER)] to cover (land) with grass **2** [I
2.2 (on)] *BrE sl* (esp. of a criminal) to inform the police about the action of (other) criminals

grass asleep <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

My father was a hand in an engineering factory.

1.1 **hand**[1] /hænd/ *n* **1** [C] either of the movable parts at the end of a person's arm, including the fingers: *She had a gun in her hand.* (=she was holding a gun)|*I've got a nasty cut in/on my left hand.*|*I held it in the palm of my hand.*|*The two lovers were holding hands (with each other).*|*He led the child by the hand.*|*She's very* good with her hands. (=good at making things, mending things, etc.)|*Wait until I* get my hands on *him!* (=catch him)|(fig.) *I can't do it today — I've* got my hands full. (=I'm very busy)|(fig.) *He asked for her hand in marriage.* (=asked to marry her)|(fig.) *That child needs* a firm hand! (=should be firmly con-
1.2 trolled) **2** [C] a pointer or needle on a clock, machine,
1.3 or measuring instrument: *the second/minute/hour hand* **3** [S] handwriting: *He wrote in a neat hand.* **4** [C] a a
1.4 set of playing cards held by one person in a game: *a good hand*|*a winning hand* b a game of cards: *a couple*
1.5 *of hands of poker* **5** [C] a unit equal to 0.1 metres, used
1.6 in measuring a horse's height at the shoulder **6** [C] a sailor on a ship: *All hands on deck!* (=a call for all
1.7 sailors to come up to deal with some trouble) **7** [C] (*usu. in comb.*) a worker: *a factory hand*|*a farmhand*|
1.8 (*AmE*) *a hired hand on a farm* **8** [C] someone with skill, knowledge, or experience of the stated kind: *I'm* a dab hand (=very skilled) *at making pastry.*|*You don't need to tell her how to do it - she's* an old hand at *this sort of work.*|*an old China hand who'd lived there and*
1.9 *knew it well* **9** [S] encouragement given by clapping (CLAP[1]) the hands; a burst of APPLAUSE: *Let's give the*
1.10 *singer a big hand!* **10** [S] help (esp. in the phrase
1.11 give/lend a hand to): *Could you give me a hand with this heavy table, please?* **11** [S (in)] an influence or share in some action or event: *I suspect John had a hand in this.*|*Some observers detected the hand of the Americans in the coup.* (=believed that they influenced
1.12 or took part in it) **12** [C *usu. pl.*;U] control, power, or responsibility: *The meeting is* getting out of hand — *will everybody stop talking at once!*|*The whole affair is now in the hands of the police.* (=they are responsible for dealing with it)|*I've got a lot more free*

hand[2] *v* [T] **1** to give from one's own hand into someone else's: [+*obj*+*adv*/*prep*] *Will you hand it back when you've finished with it?*|*I handed round the box of chocolates.* (=offered them to everyone)|*She handed her ticket to the ticket-collector.* [+*obj*(*i*)+*obj*(*d*)] *Hand me that book, please.*|*Will you hand me down that box from the shelf, please?* **2** (have to) hand it to someone to (have to) admit someone's success, esp. in the stated activity: *You've got to hand it to him, he's a good talker.*

2.1 2.2

hand August <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

He tried to persuade me to believe him, but his story was full of holes.

1.1 hole¹ /həʊl/ *n* 1 [(in)] a an empty space inside something solid: CAVITY: *The men have dug a hole in the road.* b a space or opening going through something: GAP: *There's a hole in my sock.* | *We squeezed through a hole in*
1.2 *the fence.* 2 a (*often in comb.*) the home of a small animal: *a rabbit hole* b *infml* a small unpleasant liv-
1.3 ing-place: *What are you doing living in this hole?* 3 *infml* a position of difficulty; PREDICAMENT: *John's resig-*
1.4 *nation puts us in a bit of a hole.* 4 [(in)] a fault in reasoning: *trying to* pick holes in *the other side's argu-*
1.5 *ments* (=to find the weak points) | *Her theory is full of holes.* 5 *BrE* ‖ cup *AmE*— (in GOLF) a a hollow place in the ground into which the ball must be hit b an area of play with such a hole at the far end: *an 18-hole golf course* | *The next hole is 450 yards long.* —see picture at
1.6 GOLF 6 make a hole in *infml* to use up a large part of: *The cost of the repairs had made a big hole in our sav-*
1.7 *ings.* 7 need something like a hole in the head *infml* to see something as unwelcome and adding to other problems: *I needed another bill like I needed a hole in the head.* —see also BLACK HOLE, WATERING HOLE

2.1 hole² 1 [T] to make a hole in: *Our ship was holed and*
2.2 *began to sink.* 2 [I (OUT);T] to hit (the ball) into a HOLE¹ (5) in GOLF

2.3 hole up *phr v* [I; *adv;prep*] *sl* to hide as a means of escape: *After the bank robbery, the criminals holed up in a disused factory.*

hole beach <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

1.1 **long**[1] /lɒŋ‖lɔ:ŋ/ *adj* 1 a measuring a large, or larger than average, amount from one end to the other: *long hair|a long road|She wore a long dress, reaching down to her feet.* b covering or lasting a great, or greater than average, distance or time: *a long illness/journey|We're a long way from home.|She's taking a long time to get here.|*(fig.) *Medical research has come a long way* (=made a lot of PROGRESS) *towards finding a cure for*
1.2 *the disease.* —opposite **short** 2 covering a certain distance from one end to the other or a certain time: *How long is the film?* [after *n*] *It's an hour long.|The garden*
1.3 *is 20 metres long and 15 metres wide.* 3 seeming to last more than usual or more than is wished: *I've had a long day;* (=with a lot of tiring work to do) *I need a drink!*
1.4 4 (of memory) able to remember things far back in
1.5 time —opposite **short** 5 (of a probability or BET) with a high risk of failing or not happening: *The odds against him winning are rather long.* (=he will probably lose)
1.6 —see also LONG SHOT 6 [A] (of a drink) cool, containing little or no alcohol, and served in a tall glass: *I'm*
1.7 *really thirsty — I'd like a nice long drink.* 7 (of a vowel) lasting longer than a short vowel in the same posi-
1.8 tion 8 **long in the tooth** *infml* old 9 **long on** *infml, rather old-fash* with a lot of (a quality): *He's long on*
1.9 *(good) looks, but short on brains.* 10 **not by a 'long chalk/shot** *infml* not at all; not nearly: *"Is it ready*
1.10 *yet?" "No, not by a long chalk."* —see also **in the long run** (RUN[2]), **in the long term** (TERM[1]), **take the view** (VIEW[1])

long[2] *adv* 1 (for) a long time: *How long will* (=When will he come, finish what he is doing *can't wait much longer.|Stay as long as you hasn't been back long.|Don't be long about (doing was not long before we realized our mistake.| take long to finish the job.* 2 [+*adv/prep*] a time: *long ago and far away|not long after t* short time after) 3 **as/so long as** if; on condit PROVIDED: *You can go out, as long as you prom back before 11 o'clock.|Our profits will be good s the dollar remains strong.* 4 **no longer/(n longer** (not) any more; (formerly but not) no *longer lives here.|He doesn't live here any longe to smoke 20 cigarettes a day, but not any longe* **long** *infml, esp. AmE* goodbye

long[3] *n* 1 **before long** also **ere long** *lit*— after period of time: soon: *They came back before lon* **long** (*in questions or negatives*) for a long tim *you there for long?|I can't stay for long.* 3 t **and (the) short of it** *infml* the general re pressed in a few words; UPSHOT: *I won't go into but the long and the short of it was that we m train.*

long[4] *v* [T+*to-v*; ~~*obj*~~] to want something very *I'm longing to see her again.* —see also LONGING **long for sthg./sbdy.** *phr v* [T] to want very *long for freedom* [+*obj*+*to-v*] *I'm longing for h rive.|The longed-for day at last arrived.*

long clean <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

The office will be manned over the spring holiday.

1.1 man[1] /mæn/ *n* men /men/ 1 [C] an adult human male: *He's a nice man|a tall man|a hard-working man.|men, women, and children|If you want a good administrator he's* your man. (=the right man to choose)|*The army will* make a man of *him.* (=make him brave, strong, etc.)|*The boy tried to* be a man *and not cry, but the* 1.2 *pain brought tears to his eyes.* 2 [C] a human being: 1.3 *All men must die.* 3 [U] the human race: *Man must* 1.4 *change in a changing world.* 4 [U] any of the sorts of human-like creatures that lived in former times: *prehis-* 1.5 *toric man* —see also NEANDERTHAL MAN 5 [C] an adult male in employment: *The men weren't happy with the employers' pay offer.|Jenkins is the director's* right-hand man. (=closest adviser and helper)|*We'll send a man to look at your phone tomorrow.|a report from our* 1.6 *man* (=representative) *in Italy* 6 a male of low rank in the armed forces: *the officers and men of the regiment* 1.7 7 a male member of a team: *The captain led his men on-* 1.8 *to the field.* 8 [C] *infml* a husband, lover, or other adult male with whom a woman lives: *waiting for her man* 1.9 *to come out of prison* 9 *infml* a (used for addressing an adult male, esp. when the speaker is excited, angry, etc.): *Wake up, man, you can't sleep all day!* b (used for addressing someone, esp. an adult male): *This party's* 1.10 *really great, man!* —see also MAN[3] 10 [C] any of the objects moved by each player in a board game: *chess* 1.11 *men* 11 as one man everyone together: *The audience* 1.12 *stood as one man and applauded.* 12 man and boy *old-* 1.13 *fash* for the whole of one's/his life: *He was born in the village and worked on the farm man and boy.* 13 man and wife *fml* married: *I'm afraid you can't share the same bedroom if you're not man and wife.* 14 the man 1.14 in the street (the idea of) the average person, who represents general opinion: *This kind of music doesn't appeal to the man in the street.|People who market goods need to find out what the man in the street wants.* 15 a 1.15 man of one's word someone who keeps their promises: *He's a man of his word, so if he said he'd help, he will.* 16 a man of the world a man with a lot of experience 1.16 of life: *He's a man of the world; he won't be shocked.* 17 1.17 one's own man independent in one's opinions and actions: *I shouldn't try telling him what to do; he's very much his own man.* 18 to a man *becoming rare* every 1.18 person: *They agreed, to a man.* 19 to the last man un- 1.19 til none was left 20 -man /mən, mæn/ a a man who 1.20 lives in or is from the stated place: *a Frenchman|a countryman* b a person, usu. a man, who has the stated job, skill, etc.: *a businessman|a postman* —see also BEST MAN, DIRTY OLD MAN, OLD MAN; see GENTLEMAN (USAGE), PEOPLE (USAGE) — ~like *adj*

■ USAGE Many people, especially women, do not like the use of man to mean human beings (men and women) in general. They prefer to use words like: humans, human beings, the human race, people. —see also PERSON (USAGE)

man[2] *v* -nn- [T] to provide with people for operation: 2.1 *Man the lifeboats!|the first manned spacecraft to reach the moon* —see also OVERMANNED, UNDERMANNED, UNMANNED

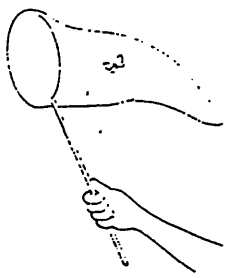
man[3] *interj AmE infml* (used for expressing strong feelings of excitement, surprise, etc.) —see also MAN[1] (9) 3.1

man bicycle <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

This year we netted 50% more than what we earned last year.

1.1 **net**[1] /net/ *n* 1 [C;U] a material of strings, wires, threads, etc., twisted, tied, or woven together with regular equal spaces between them 2 [C] any of various objects made from this, such as a a large piece of net spread out under water to catch fish b a bag of net on a frame with a handle, for catching things: *a butterfly net* c a length dividing the two sides of the court in tennis, BADMINTON, etc. —see picture at TENNIS d an enclosure at the back of the GOAL in football, HOCKEY, etc. 3 [C] a network (esp. in the phrases radio net, communication(s) net) 4 [C] a piece of material in a frame, in which firemen catch someone falling or jumping —see also NETS, cast one's net wide (CAST[1])

net



2.1 **net**[2] *v* -tt- [T] 1 to catch (as if) in a net: *We netted three fish.* [+*obj(i)*+*obj(d)*] *She's netted herself a rich husband.* 2 to cover with a net: *Net the fruit trees to protect them from birds.* 3 *infml* to hit or kick (the ball) into the net in a game

3.1 **net**[3] ‖ also nett *BrE adj* [A;after *n*] (of an amount) when nothing further is to be subtracted: *net profit* (=after tax, rent, etc. are paid)|*net weight* (=of an object without its packet)|*This jar of coffee weighs 250 grams net.*|(fig.) *The* net result (=the result when everything has been considered) *of our efforts was one small basket of strawberries.* —compare GROSS[1]

4.1 **net**[4] *v* -tt- [T (for)] to gain as a profit: *The sale netted a fat profit (for the company).* [+*obj(i)*+*obj(d)*] *It netted us a large profit.*

net book <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

My aunt reared a lamb whose mother had died.

1.1 **rear**[1] /rɪə[r]/ *n* **1** [*the*+S] *rather fml* the back: *a garden at the rear of the house*|*The engine is in the rear.* —compare FRONT[1] (1) **2** [C] *euph* the part of the body on which one sits; BUTTOCKS **3 bring up the rear** to be the last, e.g. in a line of people or a race —rear *adj* [A]: *a rear window*|*the rear wheel of a bicycle*

■ USAGE British speakers say **at the rear** for something that is behind: *a garden* **at the rear** *of the house*, and **in the rear** for the back part of something: *to walk* **in the rear** *of the procession*. American speakers generally say **in the rear** for both.

2.1 **rear**[2] *v* **1** [T (on)] to care for until fully grown: *She's reared a large family.*|*a hand-reared goat* (=fed by a human being) —compare RAISE[1] (4) **2** [I] (of a four-legged animal) to rise upright on the back legs: *The horse reared and threw me off.* —compare BUCK[2] (2)

2.3 **3** [T] to lift up (a part of oneself, esp. the head), esp. so as to be noticed: *The lion reared its head.*|(fig.) The threat of war/of a big price rise/once again has reared its ugly head. (=appeared)

rear brain <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The town was rocked by the news of the child's death.

1-1 **rock**[1] *n* 1 [C;U] (a type of) stone forming part of the Earth's surface: *To build this tunnel we had to cu: through (the) solid rock.*|*They go rock-climbing every weekend.*|*an interesting rock formation*|*igneous rocks* *The house is* as solid as a rock. (=very strong and well built) |(fig.) *Support for our candidate was* rock
1-2 solid. (=very firm) 2 [C] a large separate piece o:
1-3 stone: *There's danger from falling rocks.* 3 [C] *AmE* any stone, large or small: *They threw rocks at her car*
1-4 4 [U] a hard sticky kind of sweet made in long round bars and sold esp. at the seaside in Britain with the name of the place marked in it: *a stick of (Brighton) rock* 5 [C *usu. pl.*] *sl, esp. AmE* a diamond
1-5
2-1 **rock**[2] *n* [U] 1 any of several styles of popular modern music which are based on ROCK 'N' ROLL, usu. played on electrical instruments: *a rock concert*
3-1 **rock**[3] /rɒk|rɑ:k/ *v* 1 [I;T] to (cause to) move regularly backwards and forwards or from side to side: *The boa: rocked (to and fro) on the water.*|*She rocked the child in* *her arms.*|*He* rocked *the baby* to sleep *in the cradle.* 2
3-2 [T] to cause great shock and surprise to: *The news of*
3-3 *the President's murder rocked the nation.* 3 rock the boat *derog* to spoil the good or comfortable situation that exists: *We've been doing it this way for years; don't rock the boat by trying to introduce new methods.*

rock bright <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The prime minister skirted the problem by insisting that it was not a financial question at all.

1.1 **skirt**[1] /skɜ:t‖skɜ:rt/ *n* **1** [C] a woman's outer garment
1.2 that hangs down freely from the waist —compare DRESS[2] (1) **2** [C] also **skirts** *pl.*— a circular guarding
1.3 or covering part of a vehicle or machine: *a hovercraft's rubber skirts* **3** [U] *old-fash sl* girls or women considered as sexual objects

2.1 **skirt**[2] *v* [I+round, around;T] **1** to be or go round the outside of; go around: *The old footpath skirts the village.* | *We decided to skirt (round) the town centre.* **2** to
2.2 avoid (a difficult question or subject that ought to be dealt with): *The speech was most disappointing; it skirted round all the main questions.*

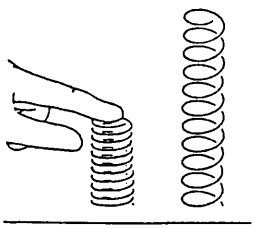
skirt cake <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

Andrew thought it was best to spring his decision on the family at dinner: he would be leaving that night.

spring[1] /sprɪŋ/ *v* **sprang** /spræŋ/ also **sprung** *AmE*, **sprung** /sprʌŋ/ **1** [I+*adv/prep*] to move quickly and suddenly upwards or forwards as if by jumping: *He sprang to his feet/sprang to the door/sprang over the wall.* | *The soldiers sprang to attention.* | (fig.) *She sprang to the president's defence when his policies were criticized.* **2** [I+*adv/prep*] to appear or come into being or action quickly or from nothing: *A wind suddenly sprang up.* | *Towns had sprung up in what had been a dry desert.* | *I turned the key and the engine sprang into life.* | *Tears sprang to her eyes.* | (*infml*) *Where did you spring from? I thought you were in America.* **3** [L+*adj*;T] to open or close quickly (as if) by the force of a spring: *The box sprang open when I touched the button.* | *to spring a trap* **4** [T (on)] to make happen or make known suddenly and unexpectedly: *We sprang a surprise party on them.* | *He sprang the news of his marriage on his parents.* **5** [T] *infml* to arrange for (someone) to escape from prison **6** spring a leak (of a ship, container, etc.) to begin to let liquid through a crack, hole, etc.

spring from sthg. *phr v* [T] to be a product or result of; have as its origin: *His fear of dogs springs from a bad experience as a child.*

spring[2] *n* **1** [C;U] the season between winter and summer; the part of the year when leaves and flowers appear: *I go on holiday in (the) spring.* | *a wet spring* | *last spring* | *spring flowers* **2** [C] also **springs** *pl.* — a place where water comes up naturally from the ground: *a bubbling spring* | *hot springs* — compare SOURCE (3) **3** [C] an object, usu. a length of metal wound round, which can be forced together or pressed down, and will return to its original shape when let go: *the springs of a mattress* | *a watch spring* | *What an uncomfortable chair! It needs new springs.* **4** [U] the quality of this object: *There's not much spring in this old bed.* **5** [S;U] an active healthy quality: *There was a letter from him at last, and she walked to work that morning with a spring in her step.* **6** [C] an act of springing: *The cat made a sudden spring at the mouse.*



spring cap <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

After dinner the duchess had a bad turn.

1.1 **turn**[1] /tɜ:n‖tɜ:rn/ *v* 1 [I;T] to (cause to) move round a central or fixed point: *The big wheel turned slowly.*|*She turned the key in the lock.*|*I turned the screw a few more*
1.2 *times to tighten it.* 2 [I;T (OVER)] to (cause to) move so that a different side faces upwards or outwards: *She turned over and went to sleep.*|*He was* tossing and turning *all night, unable to sleep.*|*Fry the steak for five minutes then turn it and fry the other side.*|*He turned the pages of the book.*|*She turned back the sheets.*|*She turned down the corner of the page to keep her place.*|*He turned the jacket inside out*|*turned the glass upside*
1.3 *down.* 3 [I+*adv*/*prep*;T+*obj*+*adv*/*prep*] to (cause to) change position or direction so as to face or move in a particular direction: *Turn right at the end of the street.*|*She turned away and began to cry.*|*We turned onto the motorway at Royston.*|(fig.) *As his debts grew bigger, he turned to crime.* (=became a criminal)|(fig.) *Can you help me? I'm desperate: I* don't know which way to turn. (=who to ask for help)|(fig.) *Our luck has turned.* (=become better)|*The tide is turning.*|*The bus turned into the hotel entrance.*|*Angrily, he* turned on his heel(s) (=turned suddenly) *and walked out.*|*When they reached the border they were* turned back (=made to go back) *because they had no passports.*|*She turned her car round and drove off in the opposite direction.*
1.4 —see also TURN off (3) 4 [I (ROUND)] to bend round or look round: *He turned (round) and waved.*|*She turned*
1.5 *to me and smiled.* 5 [T] to go round: *The car turned the corner.*|(fig.) *Exports have been low this year, but recently the figures have been improving; we seem to have*
1.6 turned the corner. 6 [T+*obj*+*adv*/*prep*, esp. on] to aim or point; set or direct in a particular direction: *The firemen turned their hoses on the blazing building.*|*She turned the aerial towards the transmitter.*|*He turned his back on her.*|(fig.) *How can you* turn your back on (=not help) *people in need?*|(fig.) *We should now turn*
1.7 *our attention to other aspects of the problem.* 7 [T] to

turn[2] *n* 1 [C] an act of turning; single movement completely round a fixed point: *Don't pull the handle; give it* 2.1
a turn. 2 [C] a change of direction: *a turn in the river*| 2.2
Make a left turn after the bank. —see also TURNING 3 2.3
[C] a place or appointed time in a fixed order, that gives one the chance or duty to do something: *You've missed your turn so you'll have to wait.*|*He asked each of us in turn.* [+*to-v*] *It's my turn to drive next.*|*You can't*

all do it together; you'll have to take turns/take it in turns. (=do it one after the other) 4 [*the*+S (*of*)] a 2.4
point of change in time: *He was born at* the turn of the century. (e.g., in about 1899 or 1900) 5 [S] a change 2.5
from an existing situation or condition; new development: *I'm afraid she's* taken a turn for the worse. (=has become more ill)|*There's been an unusual* turn of events. (=something unusual has happened) 6 [S] 2.6
a particular style, habit, or tendency: *He was of a melancholy* turn of mind. (=was sad by nature)|*She has a witty* turn of phrase. (=can express things in a clever funny way) 7 [S] *infml* a sudden shock: *You gave* 2.7
me quite a turn when you shouted out like that. 8 [C] 2.8
infml a sudden attack of illness: *She's had one of her funny turns again.* 9 a good/bad turn an action that 2.9
has a good or helpful/bad or unhelpful effect on someone: *She* did me a good turn *by lending me that money.*
10 at every turn in every place or at every moment: 2.10
continually: *The committee of inquiry was frustrated at every turn, and was unable to discover the truth.* 11 by 2.11
turns also turn and turn about—one after another; in
order 12 cooked/done to a turn (of food) perfectly 2.12
cooked: *The steak was done to a turn.* 13 in turn after- 2.13
wards: in the correct or expected order: *I told Frank and he in (his) turn told Sheila.* 14 on the turn: a about to 2.14
turn or change: *The tide is on the turn.*|*Public opinion on this issue seems to be on the turn.* b (of milk) on the
point of becoming sour 15 out of turn at an unsuita- 2.15
ble time or in an unsuitable way: *I hope I haven't* spoken out of turn: *I didn't know it was supposed to be secret.*

turn porter <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

He willed the house to his wife but the business went to his son.

will[1] /wɪl/ *v 3rd person sing.* will, *short form* 'll, *negative short form* won't [*modal + to-v*] 1 (used for expressing the simple future tense): *They say that it will rain tomorrow.* | *The wedding will take place in July.* | *What time will she arrive/will she be arriving?* | *I will have finished the job by that time.* | *We'll see you next week.* | *New recruits will report to the sergeant at 9 a.m.* (=this is what they must do) 2 to be willing to; be ready to: *I won't go!* | *We can't find anyone who will take the job.* | *The door won't shut.* | *Will you have some tea?* (=a polite way of offering something) | *The doctor will see you now.* 3 (used when asking someone to do something): *Will you phone me later, please?* | *Shut the door, will you?* | *You won't tell him, will you?* (=I hope not) —see LANGUAGE NOTE: Requests 4 (shows what always happens): *Accidents will happen.* | *Oil will float on water.* | *He will ask silly questions.* | *Boys will be boys.* (=one must expect boys to behave in the way they typically do) 5 (used like can, to show what is possible): *This car will hold five people comfortably.* 6 (used like must, to show what is likely): *That will be the postman at the door now.* —see also WOULD; see NOT (USAGE), SHALL (USAGE); see LANGUAGE NOTE: Modals

will[2] *n* 1 [C;U] the power of the mind to make decisions and act in accordance with them, sometimes in spite of difficulty or opposition: *Do you believe in* free will/freedom of the will? (=the power to decide freely what one will do) | *You must have an* iron will (=a very strong will) *to have given up smoking after all those years.* | *Even small children can have very strong wills.* 2 [U] what is wished or intended (by the stated person): *Her death is God's will/the will of God.* | *In a democracy, the government is supposed to reflect the will of the people.* [+*to-v*] *She seems to have lost the will to live.* (=the desire to stay alive) | *The prisoner was forced to sign a confession* against his will | *She donated the money* of her own free will (=because she wanted to, and not because she was asked or forced to) 3 [S] a strong determination to act in a particular way; intention: *Where there's a will, there's a way.* (old saying=if you really want something you will find a way of getting it) | *They set to work* with a will. (=with eager interest) | *He tries hard but,* with the best will in the world (=however good his intentions may be), *he'll never make a good teacher.* 4 [U] the stated feeling towards other people: *She bears him no ill will for speaking out against her proposals.* 5 [C] an official statement of the way someone wants their property to be shared out after they die: *Have you made your will yet?* 6 at will *fml* as one wishes 7 -willed /wɪld/ having a will of the stated strength: *strong-willed* | *weak-willed*

will[3] *v* 1 [T] to (try to) make (something) happen, esp. by power of the mind: [+*obj* + *to-v*] *We were all at the side of the racetrack, willing her to win.* [+*that*] *God has willed that the Earth (should) turn once a day.* 2 [T (to)] to leave (possessions or money) in a WILL[2] (5) to be given after one's death: [+*obj(i)* + *obj(d)*] *Grandfather willed me his watch/willed his watch to me.* 3 [I;T] *old use* to wish: *She is going to leave, whether you will or no/not.*

will car <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence

The road winds a lot before it reaches the casle.

1.1 **wind**[1] /wɪnd/ *n* 1 [C;U] moving air, a current of air, esp. one moving strongly or quickly: *the east wind|a 70-mile-an-hour wind|We couldn't play tennis because there was too much wind.|The clothes on the washing line flapped in the wind.|A sudden gust of wind blew the door shut.|High|strong winds made driving conditions dangerous|*(fig.) *the winds of change|controversy* —see
1.2 USAGE 2 [U] breath or breathing: *It took him a while*
1.3 *to* get his wind (=breathe properly or regularly) *after running so fast.* —see also SECOND WIND, WINDPIPE 3 [U] *esp. BrE* (the condition of having) air or gas in the stomach: *Cabbage gives me wind.|Small babies often*
1.4 *get wind.* 4 [U] *infml derog* words without meaning: *That speech was just a load of wind.* —see also WINDBAG
1.5 5 [*the*+S+*sing./pl. v*] the group of WIND INSTRUMENT
1.6 players in a band: *the wind section of an orchestra* 6 get/have wind of *infml* to hear or know about (something secret or private), esp. accidentally or unofficially: *The police have got wind of a robbery planned for*
1.7 *tonight.* 7 in wind and limb *fml or pomp* in all parts of one's body: *The horse was* sound in wind and limb.
1.8 (=completely healthy) 8 put/get the wind up *infml* to make/become frightened or anxious: *These new police tactics have really put the wind up the local drug dealers.*
1.9 9 see/find out which way the 'wind blows to find out
1.10 what the situation is before taking action 10 (something) in the wind (something, esp. that is secret or
1.11 not generally known) about to happen/being done 11 take the wind out of someone's sails *infml* to take away someone's confidence or advantage, esp. by saying or doing something unexpected —see also WINDY, break wind (BREAK[1]), (sail) close to the wind (CLOSE[3]), throw caution to the winds (THROW[1])

■ USAGE Wind is a general word for a moving current of air. A breeze is usually a pleasant, gentle wind: *There's a nice* breeze *down by the sea.* A gust is a strong, sudden rush of air: *A* gust *of wind blew the door shut.* A gale is a very strong wind: *Our chimney was blown down in a* gale. —see also STORM (USAGE)

2.1 **wind**[2] /wɪnd/ *v* [T] 1 to cause to be breathless or have difficulty in breathing: *He was winded by a sudden blow*
2.2 *to the stomach.* 2 *tech* to smell the presence of (esp. a hunted animal): *The hounds winded a fox.*

wind[3] /waɪnd/ *v* wound /waʊnd/ 1 [T] to turn round and round with a number of circular movements: *She was winding the handle.* 2 [T (UP)] to tighten the working parts of by turning round and round: *The clock's stopped: you'd better wind it (up).* 3 [T+*obj*+*adv/prep*] to move by turning a handle: *I wound down the car window.* 4 [T+*obj*+*adv/prep*] to turn or twist (something) repeatedly, esp. round an object: *The nurse wound a bandage round my wounded arm.|She wound the wool into a ball.|I wound a scarf round my neck.* 5 [I+*adv/prep*] to follow a twisting course, with

3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4 3.5

many changes of direction: *The path winds through the woods and up the side of the mountain.* —see also WINDING

wind strong <<<= Use BOTH these words in a sentence		

AlZ93b

DicArab

This is a new episode in a series of experiments designed to unveil the reference needs and skills of the Arabic-speaking learners of English. Some of you may still remember the first one. Your co-operation will help dictionary-compilers take account of your needs in any future editions of learners' dictionaries.

Please answer the questions below.

Name: _____ Course: _____?

Name of dictionary you use _____

Have you ever been taught how to ue a dcitionary properly? [ ]

The following example explains the question we need to answer below.

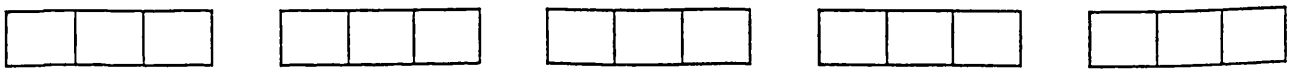
Conservative Party
1 2 ☐

If you would look this phrase up under ***CONSERVATIVE***, then put 1 in the box.
If you would look this phrase up under ***PARTY***, then put 2 in the box.

Below you will find a set of 36 similar expressions. For each one write down the number of the word you would look up first.

When you have answered the quetions, please send back the form to:

S. E. Al-zo'abi
CALS
University College of Swansea



Which word would you look up first if you wanted to find this expression in your dictionary?

				A L C A L C
	☐	sign language 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
	☐	labour day 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
soft drink 1 2	☐	early bird 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
chain reaction 1 2	☐	solar system 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
casualty department 1 2	☐	red crescent 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
ready money 1 2	☐	public sector 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
service charge 1 2	☐	tea break 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
science park 1 2	☐	brain washing 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
record player 1 2	☐	white heat 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
quotation marks 1 2	☐	open house 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
queen mother 1 2	☐		☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
public prosecutor 1 2	☐	open secret 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
	☐	green party 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
monkey wrench 1 2	☐	middle ear 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
long jump 1 2	☐	jet engine 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
	☐	home help 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
	☐	golden jubilee 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐
double chin 1 2	☐	black death 1 2	☐	☐☐☐☐☐☐

ALZ93c

LexArab 3

This is the third episode in a series of experiments initiated to investigate the reference needs and skills of the non-native speakers of English.

Your answers will help dictionary-compilers know your preferences and, hopefully, take account of your needs in any new versions of their dictionaries in the future.

Please answer the following:

Name: _____ Course _____

Native Language _____

Name of dictionary you use _____

Below you will find a set of idiomatic phrases made up of two words.
What you have to do is explained by the following example.

School Master ☐

If you wanted to know the meaning of this expression, you would look it up in your dictionary under SCHOOL, then put 1 in the box.

If you would look it up under MASTER, then put 2 in the box.

Now, do the same with the examples below. You need to write down the number of the word which you would look up first.

Thanks for help in advance.

☐☐☐ ☐☐☐ ☐☐☐ ☐☐☐ ☐☐☐

Which word would you look up first if you wanted to find these expressions in your dictionary?

house arrest 1 2	☐		fairy story 1 2	☐	
law agent 1 2	☐		cash flow 1 2	☐	
eye tooth 1 2	☐		index finger 1 2	☐	
office holder 1 2	☐		nursery school 1 2	☐	
market research 1 2	☐		buffet car 1 2	☐	
	☐		anchor man 1 2	☐	
blood transfusion 1 2	☐		scrap yard 1 2	☐	
life expectancy 1 2	☐		theme song 1 2	☐	
time exposure 1 2	☐		duvet cover 1 2	☐	
day shift 1 2	☐		reference book 1 2	☐	
youth hostel 1 2	☐		obstacle race 1 2	☐	
night porter 1 2	☐		wedding breakfast 1 2	☐	
quarter sessions 1 2	☐		juvenile court 1 2	☐	
crown jewels 1 2	☐		reception desk 1 2	☐	
key signature 1 2	☐		agony aunt 1 2	☐	
gas poker 1 2	☐		donkey work 1 2	☐	
mountain ash 1 2	☐		welfare state 1 2	☐	
press photographer 1 2	☐		vigilance committee 1 2	☐	
body odour 1 2	☐		remand centre 1 2	☐	
job satisfaction 1 2	☐		parlour game 1 2	☐	

ALZ93d

LexArab 4

This is the fourth in a series of experiments designed to investigate the reference needs and skills of the non-native speakers of English.

Your answers will help dictionary-compilers know your preferences and, hopefully, take account of your needs in any new versions of
their dictionaries in the future.

Please answer the following:

Name: _____ Course _____

On the next page, you will find a set of idiomatic phrases made up of two words. What you have to do is explained by the following example:

Pay Packet ☐

Suppose you wanted to find the meaning of this expression in your dictionary:

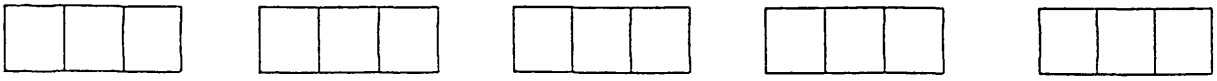
if you would look it up in your dictionary under PAY, then put 1 in the box.

if you would look it up under PACKET, then put 2 in the box.

Next, underline which of the two words you think is the LEAST FREQUENT. E.g. Pay Packet

Now, do the same with the examples on the next page.

Thank you very much for your help.



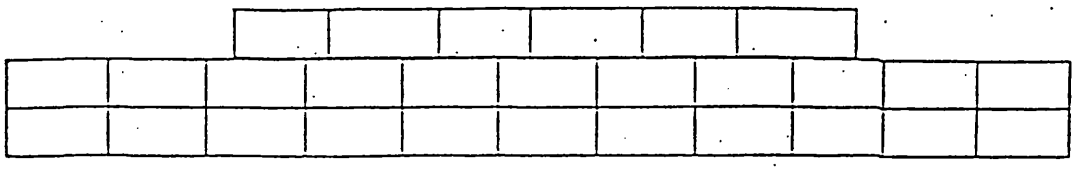
trade gap	cot death	
air base	brain drain	
ant hill	pressure group	
breast pocket	street credibility	
search warrant	crown court	
card table	breeding ground	
death duty	child prodigy	
ball bearing	dinner party	
assault course	heart failure	
kitchen cabinet	gate money	
witch doctor	credit transfer	
route march	bell push	
iron lung	day release	
assembly time	quality control	
blood donor	jumble sale	
barley sugar	drive shaft	
shock therapy	hat trick	
spot check	boon companion	
poker face	road hog	
box pleat	nuisance value	
flesh wound	object lesson	
sheet lightning	depth charge	
data bank	home economics	
factory farming	cottage pie	
bull market	call sign	
chain mail	mug shot	
cream tea	sick leave	
eye socket	pet name	
clothes horse	return match	
junk food	paper tiger	

Appendix 6.1: materials used in chapter 6
COBUILD entries

LexArab 6 ALZ94B

Write your name here

Thank you very much for your help



LexArab 6

Name _____ Year _____

This booklet consists of 20 pages. On each page there is a sentence which contains a certain collocation, i.e. two words which always go together such as display bravery, set an alarm, take a holiday, etc. In some of the sentences the use of these collocations is correct whereas in some sentences the use of the expressions is incorrect. Accordingly, a sentence with a correct expression is considered to be correct and vice versa.

Here is an example. Each sentence is followed by a dictionary definition of the two parts of the expression used like this:

The strong wind provoked too much damage to the buildings.

damage /dæmɪdʒ/, damages, damaging, damaged. 1 To damage something means 1.1 to 2 Damage is 2.1 physical harm that is caused to something, especially harm that stops it working properly or makes it look less good. EG *The earthquake caused damage estimated at 300 million pounds... I agreed to help pay for the damage to the floor and the ceiling... A post-mortem showed the damage done to the liver.* 2.2 a harmful effect that something has on a particular thing. EG *He could not repair the damage done to the party's standing and credibility... ...psychological damage.* • If you say the damage is done, you mean that it is too late now to prevent the harmful effects of something which has already been done.

v+o
N-UNCOUNT: OF+ PREP-TEEN to = devastation
N-UNCOUNT: OF+ PREP-TEEN to = harm
• FER: AUX DEFECTS

provoke /prəvəʊk/, provokes, provoking, provoked. 1 If you provoke a person or animal, you deliberately annoy them and try to cause them to behave aggressively. EG *Rayos was trying to provoke them into fighting... Waving a red cape, Delgado provoked the animal to charge... They are armed and ready to shoot if provoked in the slightest way.* 2 If something provokes a violent or unpleasant reaction to a situation, it causes it. EG *The petition provoked a storm of criticism... ...the violence provoked by the marches... ...the insult that had provoked the duel.*

v+o
= anger
≠ placate
v+o
= prompt

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

What you have to do is to read the sentence and the definitions carefully and decide whether this expression and consequently the whole sentence is correct or not.

In the above example, the definition of the verb provoke does not indicate that we can say that somebody or something may provoke damage. However, the definition tells us that something might provoke an angry situation, reaction criticism, or demonstration. Accordingly, one deduces from the definitions of both provoke and damage that it is not correct to say provoke damage. Thus, we tick [X] the second box as appears above.

Thank you very much for your help.

The shop's customers registered a complaint that some of the vegetables sold in this shop were not clean enough.

complaint /kəˈmpleɪnt/, **complaints.** A complaint is 1 a statement in which you say that you find a situation wrong or unsatisfactory and that it should be dealt with. EG *Complaints about my lack of judgement... It is a common complaint that children lack discipline.... There were the usual complaints of violence... They have no real grounds for complaint.* N COUNT/ UNCOUNT ⇑ objection = criticism

2 a reason for complaining. EG *Our main complaint is the lack of child-care facilities.* N COUNT

3 a formal protest. EG *She wrote a letter of complaint to the manufacturer... He intends to make a complaint against the police.* N COUNT/ UNCOUNT

4 an illness, often one which is not very serious. EG *It turned out to be a minor urinary complaint.* N COUNT = ailment

register /redʒɪstə/, **registers, registering, registered.**

2 When you register, you put your name on an official list, for example to enable you to receive a particular service. EG *We must register for work at the employment agency first... Have you registered at the hotel yet?... They're coming to register as students on the English course... He had failed to register with the local health centre.* V:USU+A ⇑ enrol

3 If you register something, such as the name of someone who has just died, or the details of ownership of your car, you have these facts recorded on an official list. EG *One of the cars was registered in my name.* V+O:USU+A

4 When an amount or measurement registers or when something registers it, the amount or measurement is shown on a scale or recording instrument. EG *The inflation index registered a modest 7.8% annual rate... It was such a small amount that it didn't register on our machine.* V.ERG

5 If someone registers something such as a victory or a success, they achieve it, for example in an election or other contest; a rather formal or literary use. EG *The Party would probably register a significant advance in the forthcoming elections... England registered their first win of the competition last night.* V+O ⇑ gain = record

6 If you register your feelings or opinions about something, 6.1 you do something which is intended to let other people know exactly what you feel or think. EG *Thousands joined the march to register their opposition to the cuts in education.* V+O ⇑ express

6.2 they are clearly visible to other people because of the expression on your face. EG *He stared at me for a moment, his face registering disbelief... Smithy registered surprise, then shook his head.* V+O ⇑ show

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

ALZ94B

In such a meeting you cannot keep talking for a long time; you should relinquish the floor as soon as you can.

floor /flɔ:/, **floors, flooring, floored.** 1 The floor of a room is the flat part of it that you walk on. EG *A brown suitcase lay on the floor... ...the bathroom floor... The book fell to the floor.* N COUNT : USU SING, USU *the*+N ⇑ ground ≠ ceiling

2 The floor of a valley, forest, sea, etc is the ground at the bottom of it. EG *The fish has markings that enable it to blend in with the ocean floor.* N COUNT+SUPP : USU *the*+MOD+N IN SING ⇑ surface

3 The floor of a vehicle is the bottom surface of it inside. EG *I shot off with the accelerator pedal flat on the floor.* N COUNT

4 A floor of a building is all the rooms that are on a particular level. EG *My office is on the second floor... ...on the top floor... ...a ground floor flat.* N COUNT = storey

5 The floor in a place such as a club or disco is the area where people dance. EG *As the last dancers drifted off the floor, Boylan was still at the bar.* N COUNT : USU *the*+N IN SING ⇑ place

6 The floor of a stock exchange is the large open area where trading is done. N COUNT+*of*

7 The floor is also used to refer to the place where official debates and discussions are held, especially between members of parliament or councillors. EG *He stated his position openly on the floor of the House.* N COUNT : USU *the*+N IN SING

8 If someone has the floor in a debate or discussion, they have the right to speak. EG *You now have the floor for the next five minutes.* N SING : *the*+N

relinquish /rɪˈlɪŋkwɪʃ/, **relinquishes, relinquishing, relinquished**; a formal word. If you relinquish something such as authority, responsibility, or a job, you give it up. EG *England has been forced to relinquish her Empire... She relinquished the editorship of the newspaper... Step by step she has relinquished all responsibility* V+O = abandon

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

The unemployed do not believe the minister's pledge to originate 500 jobs by next month.

originate /ɔrɪdʒɪneɪt/, **originates, originating, originated.** When something **originates** or you **originate** it, it begins to happen or exist; a formal word. EG *The bullfight originated in Spain... These beliefs originated in the 19th century... The idea originates with the woman who wrote the music.*

V-ERG : USU+A
↑ start

job /dʒɒb/, **jobs.** 1 A **job** is 1.1 the work that a person does regularly in order to earn money. EG *Gladys finally got a good job as a secretary... He considered himself ideally suited for the job of Prime Minister... ...teaching jobs... ...an unusually good job offer.* 1.2 something that you do as part of your regular work which may consist of many smaller tasks. EG *We managed to finish the entire job in under three months... The man who did the design job had ten years' training behind him.* 1.3 a particular task that you have to do, especially something that you do with your hands or with special tools. EG *There are always plenty of jobs to be done round here... ...a repair job... I think he did a great job of work.* • See also **odd job.** 1.4 especially in spoken English, an object or a finished piece of work that is of good quality and that has been made or done skilfully and carefully. EG *Today, a job like that would cost £30... 'Damn good paint job,' he says out loud.* 1.5 especially in informal spoken English, an action or activity that is dishonest, unfair, or unpleasant. EG *I mean, it was a put-up job, if ever there was one... The press did a hatchet job on him.* 1.6 in informal English, a crime, especially a burglary. EG *They caught him after that job in Brixton.*

N COUNT
↑ employment
= post

N COUNT
↑ work
= assignment

N COUNT
↑ work
= task

N COUNT : USU+SUPP

N COUNT : USU MOD+N

N COUNT
↑ crime

2 The **job** of a particular thing or kind of person is 2.1 a duty, responsibility, or function that they have or are considered to have. EG *It's the job of journalism to remain detached... ...complex facial muscles whose sole job it is to make expressions.* 2.2 the kind of work and duties that they do or are expected to do. EG *She was criticized for doing 'a man's job'.*

N COUNT : USU POSS+N IN SING
↑ role
= function

N COUNT : USU POSS+N IN SING
= work

3 If you say that you had a difficult **job,** a hard **job,** etc to do something, you are emphasizing how difficult that situation or activity was. EG *I had a difficult job sneaking into the house and changing my filthy clothes... It was going to be a bit of a job to find George.*

N SING : USU a+MOD+N+-ING/to-INF
↑ problem
= task

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

A nurse should not administer an injection to any patient without a doctor's approval.

injection /ɪndʒɛkʃə°n/, **injections.** 1 If you have an **injection,** someone, usually a doctor or nurse, pricks your skin with the needle of a syringe and puts drugs or other liquids into your blood. Injections are usually used to prevent illnesses or infection. EG *You had a smallpox injection when you were five... She gave me some injections for tetanus... Another course of injections was prescribed.* ▸ used as an uncount noun. EG *This hormone could be supplied by injection.*

N COUNT
⇑ treatment
= jab

▸ N UNCOUNT

2 An **injection** of money or resources into a business, project, or organization is the putting of extra money or resources into it in order to help it become efficient or profitable. EG *A slightly larger injection of money from local authorities would be helpful now... They only survived because of massive injections of commercial funds.*

N COUNT + *of*
= infusion

administer /ə'dmɪnɪstə/, **administers, administering, administered.** 1 To **administer** a country, company, institution, etc means to be responsible for managing and supervising it. EG *...a man who had a huge department to administer... The territory had been administered by South Africa.*

V+O
⇑ control
= run

2 If you **administer** something such as the law or justice or a punishment, test, oath, or plan, you organize or supervise it and make sure that it is put into practice properly. EG *Experts administer tests and quote the results... Who will administer the oath to the President?*

V+O : IF+PREP THEN *to*
= give

3 If you **administer** something such as a kick, blow, or shock to someone, you kick, hit, or shock them; used in fairly formal English. EG *...the calm clinical way in which the keepers administered the beating... The economic crisis administered a severe blow to their hopes.*

V+O : IF+PREP THEN *to*
⇑ give
= deal

4 If you **administer** something such as a drug to someone, you give it to them or supervise them taking it; a formal word. EG *...to administer a sedative.*

V+O
= dispense

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

His boss offended him but did not allow him to complain so he was obliged to swallow his anger.

swallow /swɒləʊ/, **swallows, swallowing, swallowed.** 1 If you **swallow** something, you cause it to go from your mouth down into your stomach. EG *He swallowed more pills... ...the only food and drink she was still able to swallow.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *He finished off the whisky with a swallow... The man took a long swallow of his beer.* V+O ▸ N COUNT = gulp

2 To **swallow** also means to make a movement in your throat as if you were swallowing something, often because you are nervous or because you are about to say something. EG *He swallowed and closed his eyes... Ellen swallowed and said, 'Hi. It's me.'* V = gulp

3 If someone **swallows** a story, statement, etc, they believe it completely, without thinking that it might not be true. EG *I trusted her so much that I would have swallowed any story she told me.* V+O = accept

4 If you **swallow** something such as an insult or an unkind remark, you accept it patiently and do not protest. EG *She swallowed the sarcasm and got on with her work.* V+O ⇑ endure

5 If you **swallow** your feelings, you stop yourself from showing them. EG *He swallowed his rage and said 'Forget it.'* ● to **swallow** your **pride**: see **pride**. V+O = choke back

6 If something **is swallowed** by something else or **is swallowed up** by it, it becomes a part of it and no longer has a separate identity of its own. EG *The members would not tolerate the Liberal Party being swallowed by the SDP... He did not want his firm to be swallowed up by a multinational giant.* V+O, OR PHRASAL VB : V+O+ADV, USU PASS ⇑ be absorbed

anger /æŋgə/, **angers, angering, angered.** 1 **Anger** is the strong emotion that you feel about an action or situation which you consider unacceptable, unfair, cruel, or insulting, and about the person responsible for it. EG *There was anger at the sufferings inflicted by the bombing... Yet I couldn't feel anger against him because I liked him too much... 'You're a spiteful fool.'–'Am I?' he said, red with anger.* N UNCOUNT ⇑ feeling = resentment, rage

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

He volunteered to work for the transport company in order to augment his experience.

augment /ɔ:gmɛnt/, **augments, augmenting, augmented.** To **augment** something means to make it larger by adding something to it; a fairly formal word. EG *They mixed flour and water into noodles to augment the diet of the peasants... They hit upon another idea to augment their income... The crowds were augmented by refugees from smaller places.*

V+O
↑ increase
= supplement

experience /ɪ'kspɪərɪəns/, **experiences, experiencing, experienced.** 1 **Experience** is 1.1 knowledge or skill in a particular job which you have gained because you have worked at the job for a long time. EG *I had no military experience... ...in my experience as a teacher... ...experience of working with children... He was senior to me in experience... She's had nine months experience.* **1.2** the state or process of feeling something or being affected by it. EG *The experience of colour is wholly subjective... ...the experience of fear.* **1.3** all the events, knowledge, and feelings that make up an individual's life or the character of a society. EG *Everyone learns best from his own experience... ...speaking from personal experience.*

N UNCOUNT
↑ practice

N UNCOUNT+ SUPP
↑ sensation

N UNCOUNT

2 An **experience** is something that happens to you or something that you do, especially something important that affects you. EG *The funeral was a painful experience... ...my later experiences in the village.*

N COUNT+SUPP

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The composer spent two months designing a new piece of music.

design /dɪ'zaɪn/, **designs, designing, designed.** 1 When you **design** something, **1.1** you plan and create a picture of it in your mind and you make a detailed drawing of it from which it can be built or made. EG *The house was designed by local builders... Who designed the costumes?... ...beautifully designed toys.* **1.2** you plan, prepare, and decide on all the details of it. EG *Series of tests have been designed to assess mathematical ability... They wanted to design English courses.* V+O
V+O, OR V+O+ TO-INF : USU PASS
↑ create

2 Design is **2.1** the process and art of creating, planning, and making detailed drawings of something. EG *...graphic and industrial design... I did part-time design work at home for many years.* **2.2** the way in which something has been planned and made, including what it looks like and how well it works. EG *The awkward design of the handles made it difficult to use the scissors.* N UNCOUNT
↑ creation
N UNCOUNT

music /mju:zɪk/. 1 **Music** consists of sounds that are put together in a pattern and performed by people either using instruments or singing, in order to give them or other people pleasure. EG *She'd had the radio on playing dance music... ...the music of Irving Berlin and Jerome Kern... To begin the programme, some music from the north of the continent... ...the broadcaster and rock music critic, Paul Gambaccini.* N UNCOUNT
↑ sound

2 Music is **2.1** the art of putting sounds together so that they produce a pleasant pattern. EG *I had a very underdeveloped appreciation of music and the theatre as a child... He plans to make his career in music... One of his granddaughters was having her music lesson.* **2.2** the written representation of musical sounds. EG *Not one of them could read a note of music... She placed the music on the piano and sat down... Sometimes she played from memory, sometimes from music.* N UNCOUNT
N UNCOUNT
↑ writing

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

ALZ94B

Sometimes, the U.S.A. overrides the Security council's veto.

veto /viːtəʊ/, **vetoes, vetoing, vetoed.** **1** If someone in authority **vetoes** something, they forbid it to happen or to be put into action. EG *White could still veto the plan... The government vetoed this proposal... ...the vetoing by Britain, France, and the United States of four UN resolutions.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *The rest of the committee could not accept the veto.* V+O ‖ stop = block ▸ N COUNT

2 Veto is the right that a person or organization has to decide officially that a scheme or plan must not be put into action and the power to prevent it being put into action. EG *...the Sovereign's effective power of veto.* N UNCOUNT

override /əʊvəraɪd/, **overrides, overriding, overrode, overridden.** **1** If one thing **overrides** another thing, it replaces the other thing or reduces its importance, because it is more powerful. EG *The day-to-day struggle for survival overrode all other things.* V+O

2 If you **override** someone or **override** their decisions, you cancel their decisions because you have more power or authority than they have. EG *As managing director, he will be able to override their decisions.* V+O = overrule

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

The policewoman conquered her yawns the moment her boss started his speech.

conquer /kɒŋkə/, **conquers, conquering, conquered.** 1 If one country or group of people **conquers** another country or group of people, they take complete control of them or their land by defeating them in war. EG *Britain was conquered by the Romans in A.D. 43.*
V OR V+O = take over

2 If a person or group of people **conquers** a place, they succeed in winning the admiration of the people there. EG *The band has still to conquer America.*
V+O = win over

3 If you **conquer** something difficult or dangerous, you succeed in getting control of it, usually through great effort and determination. EG *She tried to conquer her feelings of nervousness... There has been a tremendous international effort to conquer cancer.*
V+O ↑ overcome = master

yawn /jɔːn/, **yawns, yawning, yawned.** 1 If you **yawn**, you open your mouth very wide and breathe in more air than usual, often when you are tired or when you are not interested in something. EG *He sat up and stretched and yawned... I yawned all through the first part of the concert.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *'I'm tired,' he said, and gave a big yawn... She stifled a yawn.*
V ▸ N COUNT

2 If you describe something such as a book or a film as a **yawn**, you mean that you think it is very boring; an informal use. EG *The play was a big yawn from start to finish.*
N SING : a+N, USED AS C = bore

3 A gap or opening that **yawns** is large and wide, sometimes so wide that it is rather frightening. EG *A great gap yawned between the rocks... The yawning craters stretched back towards the mainland.*
V : USU+A ↑ open = gape

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

ALZ94B

The rebels thrust three missiles at the new military base.

missile /mɪsaɪl/, **missiles.** A **missile** is **1** a weapon like a rocket that moves long distances through the air and explodes when it reaches its target. EG *Each is armed with sixteen powerful nuclear missiles... ...missile bases.* ● See also **cruise missile, guided missile.** **2** any object that you throw at someone. EG *Demonstrators attacked police cordons using sticks and assorted missiles.*

N COUNT

N COUNT
= weapon
= projectile

thrust /θrʌst/, **thrusts, thrusting.** The form **thrust** is used in the present tense and is the past tense and past participle of the verb. **1** If you **thrust** something somewhere, you push it or move it there quickly and using a lot of force. EG *The captain thrust his hands into his pockets... He thrust the bag at Buddy.*

V+O+A
= shove

2 A **thrust** is a sudden forceful movement, usually in a forwards direction. EG *With two quick thrusts of its tail, the shark was upon her... ...repeated sword thrusts.*

N COUNT
= lunge

3 If you **thrust** your way somewhere or **thrust** through a crowd, a forest, etc, you move along, pushing between people, branches, etc. EG *Edward thrust his way towards them.*

V+O+A OR V+A
= jostle

4 If something **thrusts** up or out of something else, it sticks up or sticks out in a noticeable way; a literary use. EG *...an imposing rock needle thrusting up at least 250 feet.*

V+A
= poke

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The government forces crushed the rebels resistance mercilessly

crush /krʌʃ/, **crushes, crushing, crushed.** 1 If you **crush** something, 1.1 you press it or squeeze it very hard so that you break it or destroy its shape. EG *The jaws snapped shut around her, crushing bones and flesh... He gave the impression of being able to crush a grown man in those hairy arms.* 1.2 you make it into a powder by pressing it or grinding it between two hard surfaces. EG *I wondered if the reddish powder was crushed rubies... ...crushed ice.*
V+O = crush
V+O
2 If you **crush** something such as paper or cloth or it **crushes**, you spoil its flat, neat appearance by pressing it or squeezing it and making it creased. EG *Her dress was somewhat crushed... ...a crushed piece of paper... This material crushes very easily.*
V-ERG = crumple
3 To **crush** something such as an army or a political organization means to defeat it completely. EG *Large numbers of troops were sent into enemy territory to crush the guerrillas... The government still think they can crush the union.* ◊ **crushing.** EG *It was a crushing result for the Labour Party.*
V+O = squash
◊ ADJ CLASSIF : ATTRIB
4 If something such as an event or a piece of news **crushes** someone, it shocks them or upsets them so much that they think they will never recover.
V+O = devastate

resistance /rɪˈzɪstəns/, **resistances.** 1 **Resistance** to something such as a change or a new idea is a refusal to accept it. EG *There will be fierce resistance to these proposals... We did a marketing study for yellow telephone boxes and found the resistance too strong... I have a resistance to innovation.*
N UNCOUNT : IF + PREP THEN *to* = opposition
2 **Resistance** to an enemy or an attacker is fighting or other action that people take in order to keep their freedom or avoid being defeated or forced to do something. EG *The advancing army had met with no resistance... ...one small group of resistance fighters.*
N UNCOUNT = opposition
3 The **resistance** of your body to germs or diseases is its power to remain unharmed or unaffected by those germs or diseases. EG *She has good resistance to most germs... ...bodily resistance to infection.*
N UNCOUNT : IF + PREP THEN *to* = immunity
4 The **resistance** of a machine or a material to a particular problem is its ability to remain undamaged or unaffected by that problem. EG *...the missile's resistance to electronic jamming.*
N UNCOUNT : IF + PREP THEN *to*
5 Wind or air **resistance** is a force which slows down an object or vehicle which is moving. EG *We have tried to reduce the weight and air resistance which slow the car down.*
N UNCOUNT : USU AFTER N

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

ALZ94B

All the people who hatched the conspiracy to overthrow the government were put in prison.

conspiracy /kə'nspɪrəsi[1]/, **conspiracies.** **1** **Conspiracy** is the planning by a small group of people in secret to do something illegal, usually for political reasons. EG *Later police arrested her on a charge of conspiracy to murder... Very few people knew the details of the conspiracy.*
N UNCOUNT/COUNT
⇑ plan
= plot

2 A **conspiracy** is an agreement by one group of people which other people think is wrong or likely to be harmful. EG *This is all part of a conspiracy to make me look ridiculous... There is a world conspiracy of men against women.* ● A **conspiracy of silence** is an agreement by people not to talk publicly about something. EG *Is there a conspiracy of silence about the Royal wedding dress?*
N COUNT
⇑ plot
● PHR

hatch /hætʃ/, **hatches, hatching, hatched.** **1** When a baby bird, insect, or other animal **hatches** or **hatches out**, or when it **is hatched**, it comes out of its egg by breaking the shell. EG *She stays beside the nest and when the young hatch, she brings food to them... The larva hatches out and lives in the soil... ...newly hatched tadpoles.*
V-ERG

2 When an egg **hatches**, it breaks open and a baby bird, insect, or other animal comes out. EG *After ten days, the eggs hatch.*
V

3 If you **hatch** a plot or a scheme or **hatch it up**, you think of it and work it out. EG *I've heard about the grand plot that you two gentlemen are hatching.*
V+O, OR PHRASAL VB : V+O+ADV
⇑ plan

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

ALZ94B

Do not forget to draw up the agenda for our next meeting.

draw up. 1 When you **draw up** a document, list, or plan, you prepare it and write it out. EG *A charter was drawn up, setting out their policies... I was busy drawing up plans for the new course.* PHRASAL VB : V+ ADV+O = formulate

2 When a car or other vehicle **draws up**, it comes to a particular place and stops. EG *Just before eleven a bus drew up.* PHRASAL VB : V+ ADV = pull up

3 If you **draw up** a chair, you move it nearer to a person or place, for example so that you can watch something or join in with something. EG *Three rows of chairs had been drawn up in front of a small stage... He drew his stool up to the table.* PHRASAL VB : V+ O+ADV = pull up

4 If you **draw** yourself **up**, you make your back very straight, rather than stooping. EG *He drew himself up to his full height.* PHRASAL VB : V+ O (REFL)+ADV

agenda /ədʒendə/, **agendas.** An agenda is a list of items to be discussed at a meeting. EG *The main point on the agenda was the election of a new chairman.* N COUNT

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The latest visit of the Russian defence secretary to Serbia was intended to increase the war between the Serbs and Muslims.

increase, increases, increasing, increased. The word **increase** is pronounced /ɪŋ'kriːs/ when it is a noun and /ɪŋ'kriːs/ when it is a verb. 1 If something **increases** or you **increase** it, it becomes bigger in number, size, or amount. EG *World energy demand is increasing at a rate of about 3% per year... Crime has increased by three per cent in the past year... Police checks on banks were increased in frequency.* ◊ **increased.** EG *Industrial investment has not led to increased output.* ◊ **increasing.** EG *Japanese industry is making increasing use of robots... This idea crops up with increasing frequency.*

V-ERG
⇑ grow
◊ ADJ CLASSIF
◊ ADJ CLASSIF : PREP
⇑ greater

war /wɔː/, **wars, warring, warred.** 1 A **war** is a period of fighting between countries or states when weapons are used and lots of people get killed. EG *They fought in the war against Britain... They did not want to lose another war... I did a lot of heavy work in the war years.* ▸ used as an uncount noun to refer to fighting in general. EG *Peace isn't just the absence of war... There are no winners in nuclear war... England and Germany used to be at war... The president was broadcasting within hours of the outbreak of war.* ● If a country **goes to war,** it starts fighting a war with another country. EG *Under the terms of the treaty, we are obliged to go to war.*

N COUNT
⇑ conflict
= battle
▸ N UNCOUNT
⇑ conflict
● PHR : VB INFLECTS, RECIP (*with*)

2 If two countries, states, or groups **war** with each other, they fight a war with each other. EG *India and Pakistan warred in 1965 over Kashmir.* ◊ **warring.** EG *Reason appeared powerless to reconcile the warring tribes.*

V OR V+A (*with*) : RECIP
◊ ADJ CLASSIF. ATTRIB
= battling

3 A **war** is also competition between groups of people or a campaign against a particular thing. EG *...a trade war... ...a newspaper circulation war in New York... The administration is planning a new war on drugs... She was at peace with her surroundings, not at war.*

N COUNT/ UNCOUNT
⇑ conflict

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

Mr Hughes was appointed to coach the English football team in 1982.

team /tiːm/, **teams, teaming, teamed.** A team is 1 a group of people who play a particular sport or game together against other similar groups of people. EG *He got into the New Zealand rugby team in 1978... I particularly loathed team games at school.* 2 a group of people who work together for a particular purpose. EG *...an international team of scientists... ...a group of 25 actors who work very well as a team.* 3 two or more animals which work together to pull a cart or a plough. EG *The sewer was so big you could drive teams of horses through it.*

N COUNT : IF SING, VB CAN BE SING OR PL

N COUNT : IF SING, VB CAN BE SING OR PL

N COUNT : IF SING, VB CAN BE SING OR PL

coach /kəʊtʃ/, **coaches, coaching, coached.** 1 A **coach** is 1.1 a large motor vehicle which carries passengers on long journeys by road; used in British English. EG *They travelled into London on the same coach... We usually go by coach... ...a coach trip.* 1.2 a vehicle carrying passengers that is part of a train; used in British English. EG *He conducted his electioneering tour in a private railway coach... Troops piled into the coaches.* 1.3 an enclosed vehicle on four wheels pulled by horses in which passengers used to travel. Coaches are still used for ceremonial events. EG *Whitehall comes to life when the state coaches ride down it towards Parliament.*

N COUNT, OR *by*+ N = bus

N COUNT = carriage

N COUNT, OR *by*+ N = carriage

2 If you **coach** someone, 2.1 you train them in a particular sport. EG *She had been coached by a former Wimbledon champion.* 2.2 you give them special teaching, especially in order to prepare them for an examination. EG *I used to coach in French... ...an actor coached for his part.*

V OR V+O ⇑ instruct

V OR V+O ⇑ teach = tutor

3 A **coach** is also 3.1 someone who trains a person or a team of people in a particular sport. EG *He became their fulltime professional coach... ...a famous football coach.* 3.2 someone who gives people special teaching, especially in order to prepare them for examinations.

N COUNT ⇑ instructor = trainer

N COUNT = tutor

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The most important thing to know when driving a car is when and how to budge gear.

budge /bʌdʒ/, **budges, budging, budged.** 1 If someone will not **budge** on a matter, they refuse to change their mind or to compromise. EG *She has not budged on any issue she considers important... John refuses to budge.* V : IF + PREP THEN *on/from* ⇑ give way = yield

2 If something or someone will not **budge** or if you cannot **budge** them, they will not move at all from a particular place or position. EG *The screw just will not budge... He refuses to budge off that stool... She could not budge the wheel.* V-ERG : USU WITH BROAD NEG = shift

gear /gɪə/, **gears, gearing, geared.** 1 A **gear** in a machine or vehicle is 1.1 a device or system which controls the rate at which the energy being used is converted into motion, and often whether the motion is in a particular direction or in the reverse direction. Gears often consists of wheels with teeth around their edges that fit into the teeth of another wheel or into the holes of a chain. EG *...interlocking cogs and gears... John checked the gear on the cycle... ...the grinding of gears while overtaking lorries.* N COUNT

1.2 the range of speed or power which it has when a particular gear is used. EG *We slow down to first gear and ten miles an hour... A car with a really high top gear.* N COUNT/ UNCOUNT : MOD + N

2 If a vehicle is in **gear**, a gear is connecting the engine to the wheels, and the vehicle will move if the engine is working and the brakes are not on. EG *Leave the car in gear.* PHR : USED AS AN A

3 If you say that a person, system, or process is in a particular **gear**, you are talking about the speed, energy, or efficiency with which they are working or functioning. EG *It took time to shift back into normal* N UNCOUNT : USU + SUPP ⇑ mode

5 If someone or something is **geared** to, towards, or for a particular purpose, they are organized or designed specially in order to achieve that purpose. EG *They were not geared to armed combat... ...a policy geared towards rehabilitation... ...plantations geared for export.* V + O + A *(to/for/towards)* : USU PASS ⇑ be orientated

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

The soldier displayed great bravery in the face of the enemy

bravery /ˈbreɪvəˈri¹/ is the quality of being able to do something even though it is frightening, dangerous, or difficult; used showing approval. EG *Being a nurse requires infinite patience and bravery... ...an act of bravery.*

N UNCOUNT
= courage
≠ cowardice

display /dɪspleɪ/, **displays, displaying, displayed.** 1 If you **display** something that you want people to see, you put it in a particular place, for example in a museum or in a shop window, where it can be seen easily. EG *There were cakes displayed in the front window... ...a small museum where they could display the collection. His attention was caught by the photographs displayed outside.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *The new models are on display in gas showrooms... It was possible to have these photographs for display.*

V+O : USU + A
⇑ show
= exhibit

▸ N UNCOUNT : USU + A
⇑ show

2 To **display** something also means to show it proudly to people because you want them to admire it. EG *He thrust his chest out, displaying his organiser's badge.*

V+O
= flaunt

3 If you **display** a characteristic, quality, or emotion, you behave in a way which shows that you have it. EG *His article had displayed a positive attitude to public ownership... As usual he was trying to display his concern about pollution.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *...a spontaneous display of friendship and affection... In a brief display of courtesy, he offered her his seat.*

V+O
⇑ manifest
= demonstrate
≠ conceal

▸ N COUNT : IF ▸ PREP THEN *of*

4 When a computer **displays** information, it shows it on a screen. EG *The computer will not only display the text, but speak it.*

V+O
⇑ show

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

He found a nice second-hand car and gripped the chance to buy it for 400 pounds.

grip /grɪp/, **grips, gripping, gripped.** 1 If you **grip** something, you take hold of it with your hand and continue to hold it firmly. EG *Lomax gripped the boy's arm... He gripped the lectern with both hands.* V OR V+O : USU V +O = clasp

4 If something **grips** you, 4.1 it affects you very strongly. EG *The heartburn gripped him again... He seemed to be gripped by a powerful desire to laugh.* V+O ↑ seize

4.2 it keeps your attention concentrated on it. EG *I'm not really a golfer myself but actually I'm gripped by it.* ◊ **gripping.** EG *...a piece of research which promises to be more gripping than most.* V+O : USU PASS ↑ fascinate ◊ ADJ QUALIT = riveting

chance /tʃɑːns/, **chances, chancing, chanced.**

1 A **chance** is the extent to which something is possible or likely to happen, especially something that is pleasant or desirable. EG *I think we've got a good chance of winning... Is there any chance of you having a holiday this year?... There's little chance that the situation will improve... What are her chances of getting the job?* ● If you say that someone doesn't **stand a chance** or doesn't **stand much chance** of doing something, you mean that you think they are very unlikely to do it. EG *She didn't stand a chance of winning against Navratilova.* N COUNT/N UNCOUNT+SUPP/ REPORT-CL ↑ probability = possibility, likelihood ● PHR : VB INFLECTS, WITH BROAD NEG

2 A **chance** to do something is an opportunity to do it. EG *She put the phone down before I had a chance to reply... The extra day's holiday gave us a chance to paint the house.* ● If you **take your chances**, you make the most of all the opportunities that come along. N COUNT : USU+ *to-INF/of* ● PHR : VB INFLECTS

3 A **chance** is also a possibility that something dangerous or unpleasant will happen. EG *We may lose a lot of support, but that's a chance we'll have to take... If you want to make money you've got to take chances.* N COUNT = risk

4 If you **chance** something, you take a risk that something bad may happen. EG *There's a risk that I'll be caught, but I'm going to chance it.* V+O

5 **Chance** is the way that things happen without seeming to have any cause or plan. EG *It was pure chance that led to this discovery... ...a chance meeting.* N UNCOUNT ↑ accident

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

ALZ94B

It took the doctor three hours to help the patient retrieve consciousness.

retrieve /rɪˈtriːv/, **retrieves, retrieving, retrieved**; a fairly formal word. **1** If you **retrieve** something, you succeed in getting it back from somewhere, especially from a place where you have hidden it or where it should not be. EG *I ran back to my room and retrieved my bag... He retrieved his rifle and strolled back to the car.* V+O = recoup

2 If you **retrieve** a situation, you succeed in bringing it back into a state which you feel is more satisfactory or suitable. EG *Henry did his best to retrieve the situation, amidst some laughter.* V+O = save

3 If you **retrieve** information, you get it back from a computer system or from your own memory; a technical term. V+O = recover

consciousness /kɒnʃəsnɪˈs/, **consciousnesses**.

1 Your **consciousness** is your mind and your thoughts. EG *Doubts were starting to enter into my consciousness.* N COUNT : USU POSS + N IN SING = awareness

2 The **consciousness** of a group of people consists of all the ideas, attitudes, and beliefs shared by the group. EG *This is a novel that has become imprinted on the English consciousness.* N UNCOUNT + SUPP = mentality

3 Consciousness is an interest in and knowledge of a particular subject or idea. EG *...the awakening political consciousness of Africans.* N UNCOUNT = awareness

4 If you lose **consciousness**, you are unconscious rather than awake. If you have regained **consciousness**, you are awake again rather than unconscious. N UNCOUNT

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The opposition leader promised to recall the abortion law once he got into power.

recall /rɪˈkɔːl/, **recalls, recalling, recalled.** 1 If you recall something, you remember it by making a deliberate attempt, often because you want to tell someone about it. EG *'I ran outside to look for my children,' recalled Miriam... Deirdre recalled seeing a poster on his wall... As far as I could recall, everything was as I had left it.* V+O/-ING, V+ REPORT-CL/ QUOTE = recollect

2 You can say 'as I **recall**' or 'you might **recall**', in order to remind someone about something which you both already know and which is relevant to what you are talking about. EG *Now as I recall, last lesson we were looking at the way plants scatter their seeds... They greeted their commander-in-chief who, as you may recall, is the President of the United States.* V: *as*+S+V, OR S *+might/may+* V: USED AS ADV SEN = remember

4 To recall a person or a group means **4.1** to order them to return, for example if they have been working abroad. EG *Eighteen months ago they recalled him to Mozambique... Parliament was hastily recalled from recess.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *He was angered by his recall.* **4.2** to bring them back into military service. EG *The government passed a bill to recall reservists.* ▸ used as a noun. EG *...arrangements were made for recall of reservists.* V+O: USU+A = call back ▸ N UNCOUNT V+O ⇑ call up ▸ N UNCOUNT ⇑ call-up

law /lɔː/, **laws.** 1 The **law** is a system of rules that a society or government develops over time in order to deal with business agreements, social relationships, and crimes such as theft, murder, or violence. EG *You can't hold your demonstration here-it's against the law... She was caught in the act of breaking the law... Respect for the law is the foundation of civilized living... Every company must by law submit accounts annually... On 31 July the Peerage Bill became law... It is important for pressure groups to remain within the law... She seems to think she is above the law.* N SING: *the*+N, OR N UNCOUNT

2 A particular type of **law**, for example company law, criminal law, etc, is the group of rules in a system of law which deals with a particular set of agreements, relationships, or crimes. EG *I don't understand all the intricacies of company law... She's the Senate's expert on constitutional law... ...divorce law... The soldiers faced charges under military law.* N UNCOUNT: MOD +N = legislation

3 A **law** is **3.1** one of the rules in a system of law which deals with a particular type of agreement, relationship, or crime. EG *We hope that this will become a national law... Many of the laws passed by Parliament are never enforced... We must protest against racialism and immigration laws.* **3.2** a rule or set of rules for good behaviour which is not necessarily part of a system of government, but which seems right and important for moral, religious, or emotional reasons. EG *Children soon accept social laws... There was one law for men, and another law for women, so far as love was concerned... The clergy were having an argument about God's law.* N COUNT ▸ N COUNT/ UNCOUNT ⇑ standard

3.3 any rule or system of rules, such as those used in sport or art. EG *This painting doesn't obey the laws of perspective... ...the laws of football... It's necessary to have a good grasp of the laws of logic.* N COUNT+SUPP = principle

YES	NO

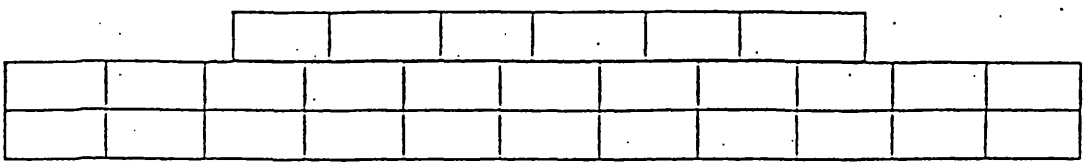
Is this sentence correct?

Appendix 6.2: materials used in chapter 6
LDOCE entries

LexArab 6 ALZ94B

Write your name here

Thank you very much for your help



LexArab 6

Name _____ Year _____

This booklet consists of 20 pages. On each page there is a sentence which contains a certain collocation, i.e. two words which always go together such as display bravery, set an alarm, take a holiday, etc. In some of the sentences the use of these collocations is correct whereas in some sentences the use of the expressions is incorrect. Accordingly, a sentence with a correct expression is considered to be correct and vice versa.

Here is an example. Each sentence is followed by a dictionary definition of the two parts of the expression used like this:

The strong wind provoked too much damage to the buildings.

dam·age[1] /'dæmɪdʒ/ *n* 1 [U (to)] the process of spoiling the condition or quality of something and the harm or loss that results: *The flood caused serious damage to the crops.* | *This will do a lot of damage to her political reputation.* | *He suffered* brain damage *in the car accident.* 2 [*the*+S] *infml, esp. BrE* the price, esp. of something done for you: *What's the damage?*

pro·voke /prə'vəʊk/ *v* [T] 1 [(into, to)] to make (a person or animal) angry or bad-tempered, esp. by continually annoying them: *That dog is very dangerous when provoked.* | *The students tried to provoke the teacher into losing her temper.* (=make her lose her temper by provoking her) [+*obj*+*to-v*] *His refusal to answer provoked me to shout at him.* —see ANNOY (USAGE) 2 to be the sudden cause of (a usu. unpleasant feeling or action): *Her insensitive speech provoked an angry reaction.* | *Don't throw one bone to two dogs; you'll only provoke a fight.*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

What you have to do is to read the sentence and the definitions carefully and decide whether this expression and consequently the whole sentence is correct or not.

In the above example, the definition of the verb provoke does not indicate that we can say that somebody or something may provoke damage. However, the definition tells us that something might provoke an angry situation, reaction criticism, or demonstration. Accordingly, one deduces from the definitions of both provoke and damage that it is not correct to say provoke damage. Thus, we tick [X] the second box as appears above.

Thank you very much for your help.

The shop's customers registered a complaint that some of the vegetables sold in this shop were not clean enough.

register[2] *v* **1** [T] to put into an official list or record: *Have you registered the birth of your baby?|The car is registered in my name.|registered voters* **2** [I] to enter one's name on a list: *Newly arrived guests must register at the hotel's reception desk.|He went to register as unemployed.* **3** [T] *fml* (of a machine or instrument) to show; record: *The thermometer registered 35°C.* **4** [T] *fml* (of a person or face) to express (a feeling): *She/Her face registered anxiety/surprise.* **5** [T] *fml* to state officially and cause to be recorded: *I wish to register my total opposition to these proposals.* **6** [T] to send by REGISTERED POST: *You'd better register this parcel.|a registered letter* **7** [I *usu. negative*] *infml* to have an effect (on a person); be noticed or remembered: *She told me her name but I'm afraid it didn't register.* (=I have forgotten it)

com·plaint /kəm'pleɪnt/ *n* **1** [C (about, against)] a statement or cause of annoyance, dissatisfaction, unhappiness, pain, etc.: *to make a complaint|The pupils made a list of their complaints about school meals.|The police received several complaints about the noise from our party.|the hospital's complaints procedure* (=system for dealing with complaints by patients) **2** [U (about)] the act of complaining: *There's been widespread complaint about the selection procedure.|If your neighbours are too noisy then you have* **cause for complaint.** (=a good reason to complain) **3** [C] an illness, esp. in the stated part of the body: *a rare liver complaint* **4 lodge a complaint (against, with)** *fml or law* to complain formally (about, to): *Our neighbours lodged a complaint against us with the police/with the housing authorities.*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

In such a meeting you cannot keep talking for a long time; you should relinquish the floor as soon as you can.

re·lin·quish /rɪ'lɪŋkwɪʃ/ *v* [T (to)] *fml* to give up (power, position, a claim, etc.): *to relinquish power|He relinquished his claim to the land/his hold on my arm.|She relinquished all control over the family business to her daughter.*

floor[1] /flɔːr/ *n* **1** [C] the surface on which one stands indoors; surface nearest the ground: *I must sweep the kitchen floor.|A* **dance floor** *is a level area specially prepared for dancing.* —see LAND (USAGE) **2** [C] a level of a building; STOREY: *Our office is on the sixth floor.|The third floor* (=the people who live or work there) *are having a Christmas party tomorrow.* —see USAGE **3** [*the*+S (of)] the bottom of the sea, a CAVE, etc.: *the ocean floor* **4** [*the*+S] the part of a parliament, council building, public meeting place, etc., where those attending sit: *The member for Brighton* **has the floor.** (=has the right to speak, so others must not interrupt)|*After the visiting speaker has finished, I shall ask for questions* **from the floor.** (=from those listening)

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The unemployed do not believe the minister's pledge to originate 500 jobs by next month.

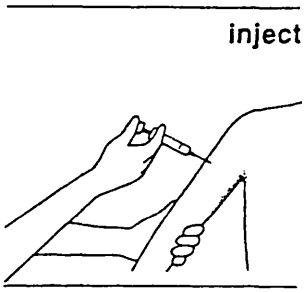
job /dʒɒb‖dʒɑ:b/ *n* **1** [C] regular paid employment: *"What does she do?" "She has a good job in a bank."| The factory closed down and she lost* (=was dismissed from) *her job.|He's got a safe job in the Civil Service.* (=he is unlikely to lose his job)|*a part-time job|He's been* **out of a job** (=unemployed) *for months.|I'm looking for a new job, one where I get a bit more* **job satisfaction.**|*I love being a soldier; I could never do an ordinary* **nine-to-five job.** (=with regular hours of work every day)|*No, I can't let you look at the confidential files—it'd be* **more than my job's worth.** (=I'd lose my job)|*to fill in a job application|a government job-creation scheme* —see (USAGE) **2** [C] a piece of work: *I've got a job for you: wash these dishes, please.|The plumber's done a good job|a good* **job of work.**|*I think Peter's just* **the man for the job.** (=exactly the right person to do this piece of work)—see also ODD JOB MAN **3** [S] something hard to do: *It was a (real) job* (=it was difficult) *to talk with all that noise.|I had a job finishing that piece of work on time.*

o·rig·i·nate /ə'rɪdʒɪneɪt/ *v* **1** [I+*adv/prep*] to have as an established starting point: *This TV series originated in/from a short story.* **2** [T] to be the first person to establish: *She originated a discussion group.* —-nator *n*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

A nurse should not administer an injection to any patient without a doctor's approval.

in·ject /ɪn'dʒekt/ *v* [T (**with, into**)] to put (liquid) into (someone) with a special needle (SYRINGE): *This drug can't be swallowed; it has to be injected.* | *The lab assistant injected the rat with the new drug.* | (fig.) *The arrival of our friends with several crates of beer injected new life into the flagging party.*



in·jec·tion /ɪn'dʒekʃən/ *n* [C;U (**into**)] an act of injecting: *The drug is taken by injection.* | (fig.) *an injection of new money into the business*

ad·min·is·ter /əd'mɪnɪstə'/ *v* [T] **1** to manage or direct (esp. the affairs of a business, government, etc.): *The company's finances have been badly administered.* | *The courts administer the law.* **2** [(**to**)] *fml* to give; DISPENSE: *to administer punishment* | *The priest administered the last rites.* (=Christian ceremony for someone who is dying) **3** [(**to**)] *fml* to cause to make (an official promise): *to administer the oath to a witness in court*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

His boss offended him but did not allow him to complain so he was obliged to swallow his anger.

swal·low[1] /'swɒləʊ‖'swɑ:-/ *v* **1** [T] to move (food or drink) down the throat from the mouth and towards the stomach: *to swallow a mouthful of bread/soup|Swallow your medicine!* **2** [I] to make this movement of the throat, esp. as a sign of nervousness: *He swallowed hard, and walked into the interview room.* **3** [T] *infml* to accept patiently or without question: *They can't treat me like that; I'm not going to swallow it.|Her excuse was obviously a lie, but he* **swallowed it whole.**|*I find that a bit hard to swallow.* **4** [T] to hold back (uncomfortable feelings, tears, etc.); not to show or express: *When he lost his job he had to* **swallow his pride** *and ask for money from his sister.* **5 swallow one's words** to admit that something one said is wrong

swallow sbdy./sthg. ↔ **up** *phr v* [T] to take in or use up completely; cause to disappear: *The increase in travel costs swallowed up our pay increase.|She was swallowed up by the crowd and we lost sight of her.|a small company that was swallowed up by one of the multinationals*

an·ger[1] /'æŋgə'/ *n* [U] a strong and sometimes violent feeling of displeasure, usu. leading to a desire to hurt or stop the person or thing causing it; extreme annoyance: *She could hardly contain (=control) her anger.|The workers reacted with anger and frustration to the closure of the factory.|suppressed anger*

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

ALZ94B

He volunteered to work for the transport company in order to augment his experience.

aug·ment /ɔ:g'ment/ *v* [I;T] *fml* to (cause to) become bigger, more valuable, better, etc.: *He augments his income by teaching in the evenings.* —~**ation** /ˌɔ:gmen'teɪʃən‖-mən-,-men-/ *n* [C;U]

ex·pe·ri·ence[1] /ɪk'spɪəriəns/ *n* **1** [U (of)] (the gaining of) knowledge or skill which comes from practice in an activity or doing something for a long time, rather than from books: *How many years' experience do you have of teaching English?|Don't correct him all the time — he'll learn by experience.|I know from my own experience how difficult this kind of work can be.* **2** [C] something that happens to one and has an effect on the mind and feelings: *Our journey by camel was quite an experience!|a fascinating|traumatic|humiliating experience*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

Sometimes, the U.S.A. overrides the Security council's veto.

o·ver·ride /ˌəʊvəˈraɪd/ *v* -rode /ˈrəʊd/ -ridden /ˈrɪdn/ [T] to take no notice of (another person's orders, claims, etc.): *He overrode their objections.*

ve·to[1] /ˈviːtəʊ/ *n* -toes [C (on);U] (a) refusal to give permission for something, or to allow something to be done; (act of) forbidding something completely: *the threat of a presidential veto on this legislation|The Frerch exercised theiɾ power of|right of veto in the Security Council to prevent the resolution being passed.|I've put a veto on football in the garden in case the children break any more windows.*

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

ALZ94B

The composer spent two months designing a new piece of music.

de·sign[1] /dɪ'zaɪn/ *v* **1** [I;T] to make a drawing or pattern of (something that will be made or built); develop and draw the plans for: *to design (dresses) for a famous shop* | *Who designed the Sydney Opera House?* **2** [T *often pass.*] to plan or develop for a certain purpose or use: *a book designed mainly for use in colleges* [+*obj*+*to-v*] *The building has been specially designed to provide easy access for people in wheelchairs.* —see also DESIGNER

mu·sic /'mju:zɪk/ *n* [Ũ] **1** the arrangement of sounds in patterns, esp. to produce a pleasing effect: *a beautiful piece of music* | *This music is by Beethoven.* | *an old poem that has been* set to music (=for which music has been written) | *classical music* | (fig.) *Her voice was music to my ears.* **2** the art of making music: *to study music* | *a music student* **3** a written or printed set of notes: *Give me my music and I'll play it for you.* | *a sheet of music on a* music stand —see also face the music (FACE[2])

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

The policewoman conquered her yawns the moment her boss started his speech.

yawn[1] /jɔ:n/ *v* [I] **1** to open the mouth wide and breathe in deeply, as when tired or uninterested **2** to be or become wide open: *The hole yawned before him.*|*a yawning chasm*|(fig.) *yawning gaps in the law*
yawn[2] *n* **1** an act of yawning **2** [*usu. sing.*] *infml derog* a dull uninteresting thing or person: *The party was a big yawn.*

con·quer /ˈkɒŋkəʳ‖ˈkɑ̆:ŋ-/ *v* **1** [I;T] to take (land) by force; win (land) by war: *The Normans conquered England in 1066.*|*a conquering army*|*a conquered city* **2** [I;T] to defeat (an enemy); be victorious over (an enemy): *The Zulus conquered all the neighbouring tribes.* **3** [T] to gain control over (something unfriendly or difficult): *After many attempts to climb it, the mountain was finally conquered in 1985.*|*She conquered her fear and picked up the enormous spider.*|*efforts to conquer inflation* **4** [T] *lit* to succeed in gaining the praise and attention of: *The painter went to Paris intending to conquer the artistic world.* —~ or *n*

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The rebels thrust three missiles at the new military base.

thrust[1] /θrʌst/ *v* **thrust 1** [T+*obj*+*adv/prep*] to push forcefully and suddenly: *The thieves thrust him into the back room and tied him up.*|*He thrust the gun into his pocket.*|(fig.) *The actress said she had been perfectly happy until fame was* **thrust upon** *her.* (=she became famous without wanting to be) **2** [I (at)] to make a sudden forward stroke with a sword, knife, etc.

mis·sile /'mɪsaɪl‖'mɪsəl/ *n* **1** an explosive flying weapon with its own engine, which can be aimed at a distant object: *a nuclear missile*|*a missile base*—see also GUIDED MISSILE, ICBM **2** *fml* an object thrown as a weapon: *The angry football fans threw bottles and other missiles at each other.*

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The government forces crushed the rebels resistance mercilessly

re·sist·ance /rɪ'zɪstəns/ *n* **1** [S;U (to)] an act of resisting or the ability to resist: *The defenders put up (a) strong resistance.*|*There has been a lot of resistance* (=opposition) *to this new law.*|*We took* **the line of least resistance** (=the easiest way) *and paid the money instead of arguing.*|*the baby's resistance to disease*|*The escaped criminal offered no resistance when the police caught up with him.* —see also SALES RESISTANCE **2** [U] the stated force opposed to anything moving: *The aircraft is streamlined to cut down wind resistance.* **3** [U] the power of a substance to RESIST (2) the passing through it of an electric current: *Copper has less resistance than lead.* —compare VOLTAGE **4** [(*the*) U+*sing./pl. v*] (*often cap.*) an organization that fights secretly against an enemy that has defeated and now controls its country **5** [C] a RESISTOR

crush[1] /krʌʃ/ *v* **1** [T] to press with great force so as to break, damage, or destroy the natural shape or condition: *Don't crush the box, there are eggs inside!*|*The tree fell on top of the car and crushed it.* **2** [T] to break into a powder by pressure: *This machine crushes wheat grain to make flour.* **3** [I+*adv/prep*] to move in large numbers through or into a small space: *The people crushed through the gates.* **4** [T] to destroy completely, esp. by the use of great force: *The military government has ruthlessly crushed all opposition.*|*a crushing defeat*|(fig.) *He was crushed/His hopes were crushed by the chairman's remark.*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

All the people who hatched the conspiracy to overthrow the government were put in prison.

hatch[1] /hætʃ/ *v* **1** [I;T (OUT)] **a** (of an egg) to break, letting the young bird out: *Three eggs have already hatched (out).* **b** to cause (an egg) to hatch: *We hatch the eggs by keeping them in a warm place.* **2** [I;T (OUT)] **a** (of a young bird) to break out through an egg: *Three chicks have hatched (out).* **b** to cause (a young bird) to hatch: *She has hatched all her chickens.* **3** [T] to form (a plan) secretly, esp. to do something bad: *They hatched a plot to murder the king.*

con·spi·ra·cy /kən'spɪrəsi/ *n* [C;U] a secret plan by two or more people to do something against the law: *a fraud conspiracy* [+*to-v*] *a conspiracy to smuggle drugs into the country*|*The men were found guilty of conspiracy to murder.*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

Do not forget to draw up the agenda for our next meeting.

draw up *phr v* **1** [T] (draw sthg. ↔ up) to prepare and usu. put into written form; DRAFT: *to draw up a plan/a contract/a list of candidates* **2** [I] (of a vehicle) to arrive at a certain point and stop: *The car drew up (at the gate) and three men got out.* **3** [T *often pass.*] (draw sbdy. ↔ up) to place in prepared order: *The soldiers were drawn up outside the palace.* **4 draw oneself up** to make oneself stand straight, often proudly: *He drew himself up to his full height.*

a·gen·da /ə'dʒendə/ *n* -das a list of the subjects to be dealt with or talked about at a meeting: *What's on the agenda for this afternoon's meeting?|the first item on the agenda|The question of salary increases is high on the agenda.*

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The latest visit of the Russian defence secretary to Serbia was intended to increase the war between the Serbs and Muslims.

war /wɔːr/ *n* **1** [U] armed fighting between nations: *They went to war over the violation of their airspace.* | *The two countries have been* at war *(with each other) for years.* | *We must* go to war against/declare war on (=begin an armed struggle against) *our enemies.* | *The Allies* waged war on/against *Hitler.* **2** [C] an example or period of this: *He fought in both World Wars.* | *to provoke a war* | *the American War of Independence* | *a war of attrition* | *a war memorial* | *war graves* | *a war hero/veteran* | *war poets* (=writing during, and about, the war) | *a nuclear war* | *the war-torn city of Beirut* **3** [C;U] a struggle between opposing forces or for a particular purpose: *the war against disease* | *the oil-price war* **4 in the wars** *infml* having been hurt or damaged —compare BATTLE[1] (1); see also CIVIL WAR, COLD WAR, PRISONER OF WAR, STAR WARS, WARRING

in·crease[1] /ɪn'kriːs/ *v* [I;T] to make or become larger in amount, number, or degree: *The population of this town has increased.* | *They have increased the price of petrol by almost 20%.* | *This method should lead to increased efficiency.* | *increasing difficulty* | *Her remarks have increased speculation about a possible fall in interest rates.* —opposite **decrease**; compare REDUCE

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

Mr Hughes was appointed to coach the English football team in 1982.

team[1] /ti:m/ *n* [C+*sing./pl. v*] **1** a group of people who work, act, or esp. play together: *John's in the school hockey team.*|*Our team is/are winning.*|*a team of researchers*|*The government is led by an able team of experienced ministers.*|*Cricket is a* **team game.**|*I didn't do it on my own; it was a* **team effort.** **2** two or more animals pulling the same vehicle: *The carriage was drawn by a team of four white horses.*|*a team of oxen* —see also PAIR

coach[2] *v* [I;T (**for, in**)] to train or teach, esp. not in a place of formal education; give instruction or advice to (a person or a group of people): *I coach people for English exams.*|*She coaches me in French.*|*to do some private coaching* —see TEACH (USAGE)

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

The most important thing to know when driving a car is when and how to budge gear.

gear[1] /gɪəʳ/ *n* **1** [C;U] an apparatus, esp. one consisting of a set of toothed wheels, that allows power to be passed from one part of a machine to another so as to control the power, speed, or direction of movement: *She* **changed gear** *to make the car go up the hill faster.* | *Most cars have four forward gears.* | *She put the van into* **bottom gear** *(BrE)/***low gear** *(AmE) to start it.* | *"The car isn't moving!" "That's because you're not* **in gear.**" | *The truck screeched to a halt with* **a crashing of gears.** | *reverse gear* | (fig.) *The industry has been* **out of gear** (=not working well) *since before the dispute began.* **2** [U] **a** a set of equipment or tools, esp. used for a particular purpose: *climbing gear* (=boots, ropes, etc.) **b** (*often in comb.*) clothing or an article of clothing, esp. for a particular purpose: *football gear* | *headgear* **3** [U] an apparatus or part of a machine which has a special use in controlling a vehicle: *the landing gear of an aircraft* (=its wheels and wheel supports)

budge /bʌdʒ/ *v* [I;T] to (cause to) move a little: *We tried to lift the rock but it wouldn't budge/we couldn't budge it.* | (fig.) *She won't budge from her opinions.*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

ALZ94B

The soldier displayed great bravery in the face of the enemy

brave[1] /breɪv/ *adj* **1** courageous, fearless, and ready to suffer danger or pain: *brave soldiers|a brave attempt to recapture the city from the enemy|Be brave — we'll soon have your tooth out.|It was very brave of you to stand up and speak in front of all those people.* [also *n, the*+P] *Today we remember the brave who died in the last war.* **2** [A] *old use* fine; EXCELLENT: *a brave new world* — ~**ly** *adv* — ~**ry** /'breɪvəri/ *n* [U]: *bravery in the face of terrible danger*

di·splay[1] /dɪ'spleɪ/ *v* [T] **1** to arrange or spread out for public view: *to display fruit in a shop window* **2** *rather fml* to show (esp. a feeling or quality): *She displayed great self-control when they told her the news.*

display[2] *n* [C;U] an act of displaying something, or something that is displayed: *a fireworks display|The goods were* **on display** *in the shop window.|a fine display of fruit|an impressive display of skill|a sudden display of temper*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

He found a nice second-hand car and gripped the chance to buy it for 400 pounds.

grip[1] /grɪp/ *v* -pp- **1** [I; T] to take a very tight hold (of): *She gripped my hand in fear.* | *car tyres that grip the road well* **2** [T] to take hold of the attention or feelings of: *The pictures gripped my imagination.* | *The whole country was gripped by panic.* —see also GRIPPING; see CLASP (USAGE)

chance[1] /tʃɑ:ns‖tʃæns/ *n* **1** [U] the force that seems to make things happen without cause or reason, and that cannot be controlled or influenced by humans; luck; good or bad fortune: *Chance plays an important part in many card games.* | *It happened quite* by chance. | *Have you got a spare stamp* by any chance? **2** [C;U (of)] (a) possibility; (degree of) likelihood that something will happen, esp. something desirable: *You'd have more chance of catching the train if you got a bus to the station instead of walking.* | *The withdrawal of the American from the competition has greatly increased the Italian's chances of success.* [+(*that*)] *There's some chance/a good chance that she'll be released without being charged.* | *There's* an outside chance (=a small chance) *that he'll win.* | *She pinned her hopes on the chance of getting the part. The theatre was almost fully booked, but he went* on the off chance (=because of the unlikely possibility) *of getting a ticket.* | *You don't* stand a chance *of winning the case.* (=there is no likelihood that you will) | *I think I'm* in with a chance *of winning this competition.* | *Is there any chance of/What are the chances of getting an interview with her?* | *Not a chance/No chance!* (=certainly not) | (*infml*) Chances are (=it is likely) *she's already heard the news.* | *I'd say she's got about* a fifty-fifty chance *of passing.* (=it is equally likely that she will pass as that she will fail) | *It was a* chance in a million *that he should have broken his leg on that particular day.* (=he was extremely unlucky) **3** [C (of)] a situation that is favourable for a particular purpose; OPPORTUNITY: *I never miss a chance of playing football.* [+*to-v*] *He had no chance to apologize.* | *The long spell of dry weather gave us a chance to paint the house.* | *Those poor children haven't got a* chance in life. | *If I give you a* second chance *will you promise to be good?* | *You should accept — you may never get another chance.* | *The offer of a free trip round the world is* the chance of a lifetime.

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

It took the doctor three hours to help the patient retrieve consciousness.

con·scious·ness /ˈkɒnʃəsnɪs‖ˈkɑːn-/ *n* **1** [U] the condition of being awake and able to understand what is happening: *David lost consciousness at eight o'clock and died a few hours later.* | *When will she regain consciousness?* **2** [U] the ideas, feelings, opinions, etc., held by a person or a group of people about the stated thing: *The experience helped to change her social/political consciousness* **3** [S;U (of)] a state or quality of knowing or feeling something; awareness (AWARE): *a consciousness of danger* [+*that*] *a consciousness that someone else was in the dark room* —see also STREAM OF CONSCIOUSNESS

re·trieve /rɪˈtriːv/ *v* **1** [T (from)] *usu. fml or tech* to find and bring back; regain: *I went and retrieved the bag I had left on the train.* | *This computer can retrieve stored information in a matter of seconds.* | *Wreckage from the crashed plane was retrieved from the ocean.* **2** [T] to put right; make up for (a mistake, loss, defeat, etc.): *She tried to retrieve the situation by making profuse apologies.* **3** [I;T] (of a dog) to bring back (shot birds) —retrievable *adj*

Is this sentence correct?

YES	NO

ALZ94B

The opposition leader promised to recall the abortion law once he got into power.

re·call' /rɪ'kɔ:l/ *v* [T] **1** [*not in progressive forms*] *rather fml* a to bring back to the mind; remember: *I can't recall the exact details of the report.* [+*v-ing*|*that*] *I don't recall ever meeting her*|*that I ever met her.* [+*wh-*] *Do you recall why she left?* **b** to make one remember (someone or something) by being similar: *a style of film-making that recalls Alfred Hitchcock* **2** [(*from, to*)] to send for or take back: *The government recalled its ambassador after the diplomatic row.*|*The makers have recalled a lot of cars that were unsafe.* —~**able** *adj*

law /lɔ:/ *n* **1** [C (*against*)] a rule that is supported by the power of government and that controls the behaviour of members of a society: *Parliament makes*|*passes laws.*|*There ought to be a law against that sort of antisocial behaviour.* **2** [*the*–S] the whole set of such rules: *Once they are approved by Parliament, the new traffic regulations will become law.* (=people will have to obey them)|*There is nothing in law that requires it.*|*In court, the jury decides on matters of fact, but the judge advises them on matters of law.*|*The law forbids stealing.*|*If you break the law, you must expect to be punished.*|*Driving when you've had too much to drink is* **against the law.** (=is illegal)|*She's been studying law for five years.* (=learning these rules and studying how they operate)|*business law* (=the set of laws concerned with business)|*a leading London law firm* (=a firm of lawyers) **3** [C] a rule of action in a sport, art, business, etc.: *the laws of cricket*|*commerce* **4** [C] a statement expressing what has been seen always to happen in certain conditions: *Boyle's law is a scientific principle.*|*the law of gravity*|*the laws of nature*

Is this sentence correct?	YES	NO

Appendix 7: definitions containing ETC

Verbs defined by means of *etc* relating to ALD, COBUILD and LDOCE

	ALD	COBUILD	LDOCE
abandon	+	-	-
abate	+	-	+
abet	+	-	-
abide	+	-	-
abjure	+	-	+
abrade	+	-	-
abridge	+	-	-
abstract	+	-	+
accede	+	-	+
acclimatise	+	-	-
account	-	+	-
accredit	+	-	-
achieve	+	-	-
acquit	+	-	-
act	+	-	-
actuate	+	-	-
adapt	+	-	+
address	+	-	-
adjourn	+	-	+
adjudge	-	+	-
adjudicate	+	-	-
adlib	-	+	+
administer	+	+	+
admire	+	-	-
admit	+	-	-
adopt	-	+	-
advance	+	-	-
advertise	+	-	+
affiliate	+	-	-
afford	-	+	-
agree	-	-	+
aggravate	+	-	-
agitate	+	-	-
aim	+	-	-
alert	+	-	-
allot	+	-	-
amalgamate	-	-	+
amass	-	-	+
ameliorate	+	-	-
anneal	+	-	+

annex	+	-	+
annotate	+	-	-
annul	-	-	+
appeal	-	+	+
applaud	-	-	+
apply	+	-	-
approach	+	-	-
appraise	-	+	-
approve	-	+	-
arm	+	-	-
arouse	+	-	-
array	+	-	-
assail	+	-	-
assent	-	-	+
assert	-	+	-
assign	+	+	-
assimilate	+	-	-
associate	+	+	-
assuage	+	-	-
atone	+	-	+
attract	-	+	-
attribute	-	+	-
autograph	-	-	+
avert	+	-	+
axe	+	-	+

Appendix 8.1: materials used in chapter 6
Test A

LexArab 8

ALZ94D

Name: ..... Course: .....

This booklet consists of some twenty boxes. Each box contains an explanation of the meaning of a chosen VERB. Underneath the box, there is a sentence which lists some NOUNs that are usually used with the VERB explained in the box like this:

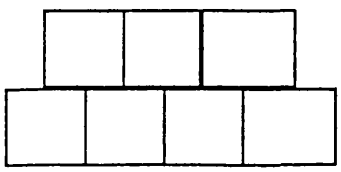
> **perform** to do; carry out (a piece of work, duty, ceremony, etc.) especially according to a usual method: The surgeon has performed the operation. | to perform a miracle.

According to the definition, you can perform: a piece of work, a duty, a ceremony, a miracle, etc.

Now, list THREE other things that you can PERFORM:

..... , ... , ...

Thank you very much for your help



administer *v* to manage or direct (especially the affairs of a business, government, etc.): The company's finances have been badly administered.| The courts administered the law.

You can administer: a company, a government, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can ADMINISTER:

....., ..., ...

amalgamate *v* **(with)** (especially of businesses, societies, groups, etc.) to join so as to form something larger; unite; combine: The new company was formed by the amalgamation of three smaller businesses.

You can amalgamate: businesses (companies) societies, groups, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can AMALGAMATE:

....., ..., ...

axe *v* **informal** to put an end suddenly and usually without warning to (a job, plans, etc.): 750 jobs were axed as a result of a government spending cuts.

You can axe: a job, plans, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can AXE:

....., ..., ...

compile *v* to make (a report, a book, etc.) from facts and information found in various places: It takes years to compile a dictionary.

You can compile: a report, a book, a dictionary, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can COMPILE:

....., ..., ...

comply *v* **(with)** *formal* to act in accordance with a demand, rule, etc.: He reluctantly complied with their wishes. | The factory was closed for failing to comply with government safety regulations.

You can comply with: a demand, a rule, a wish, a regulation, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can COMPLY with:

....., ..., ...

contravene *v formal* to act in opposition to; break (a law, rule, custom, etc.): to contravene the parking regulations.

People sometimes contravenes: a law, a rule, a regulation, a custom, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that people can CONTRAVENE:

....., ..., ...

corroborate *v* corroborate: to support or strengthen (a statement, opinion, idea, etc.) by fresh information or proof: Someone who saw the accident corroborated the driver's statement.

You can corroborate: a statement, an opinion, an idea, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can CORROBORATE:

....., ..., ...

delegate *v* **(to)** to give (part of one's power, rights, etc.) to some one else for a certain time: Part of the art management is knowing when to delegate.| I have delegated my command to Captain Roberts.

You can delegate your: power, rights, command, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can DELEGATE:

....., ..., ...

dissolve *v* to cause (an association, group, etc.) to end or break up: The military government dissolved the country's parliament and suspended all political activities.

You can dissolve: an association, a group, a parliament, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can DISSOLVE:

....., ..., ...

embody *v* to express (an idea, principle, etc.) in a real or physical form that can be seen or noticed: The country's constitution embodies the ideals of freedom and equality.| She embodies her principles in her behaviour.

You can embody: an idea, a principle, an ideal, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can EMBODY:

....., ..., ...

espouse *v formal* to (decide) to support (an aim, idea, etc.): the socialist philosophy espoused by this organisation.

You can espouse: an aim, an idea, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can ESPOUSE:

....., ..., ...

fulfil *v* to carry out (an order, conditions, etc.); obey: The conditions of the contract must be fulfilled exactly.

You can fulfil: an order, a condition, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can FULFIL:

....., ..., ...

inculcate *v formal* to fix (ideas, principles, etc.) in the mind of (someone): They inculcated the will to succeed in all their children.

You can inculcate: an idea, a principle, a will, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can INCULCATE:

....., ..., ...

misjudge *v* to judge (a person, action, time, distance, etc.) wrongly; form a wrong or unfairly bad opinion of: What a very kind thing to do, I've clearly been misjudging him all these years.

You can misjudge: a person, an action, time, distance, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can MISJUDGE:

....., ..., ...

peg *v* to fix or hold (prices wages, etc.) at a certain level.

You can peg: prices, wages, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can PEG:

....., ..., ...

prejudice *v* to weaken or harm (someone's case, expectations, etc.): your bad spelling may prejudice your chance of getting the job.

You can prejudice somebody's case, expectation, chance, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can PREJUDICE:

....., ..., ...

quench *v* (*literary*) to put out (flames, light, etc.)

You can quench: flames, lights, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can QUENCH:

....., ..., ...

rehearse *v* to practice (a play, concert, etc.) in order to prepare for a public performance: The actors were rehearsing the play until 2 o'clock in the morning.

You can rehearse: a play, a concert, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can REHEARSE:

....., ..., ...

relinquish *v* **(to)** to give up (power, position, a claim, etc.): to relinquish power| He relinquished his claim to the land/his hold on my arm. | She relinquished all control over the family business to her daughter.

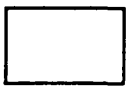
You can relinquish: power, a position, a claim, control, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can RELINQUISH:

....., ..., ...

solicit *v formal* to ask for (money, help, a favour, etc.) from a (person): May I solicit your advice on a matter of some importance.

You can solicit: money, help, favour, advice, etc. Now, list **THREE** other things that you can SOLICIT:

....., ..., ...



LexArab 8

ALZ94D

Name: ..... **Course:** .....

This booklet consists of some twenty boxes. Each box contains an explanation of the meaning of a chosen VERB. Underneath the box, the verb explained in the box is combined with four NOUNs like this:

> **perform** to do; carry out (a piece of work, duty, ceremony, etc.) especially according to a usual method: The surgeon has performed the operation. | to perform a miracle.

perform a duty	[ ]	perform a n action	[ ]
perform a favour	[ ]	perform a task	[ ]

Some of these nouns can be used with the defined verb. The other nouns cannot be used with this verb. What you have to do is to read the definitions carefully and write **YES** beside the phrase you think correct and **NO** beside the phrase you think wrong as done in the example above.

Now, read all the definitions below and do all the examples in the same way.

> **administer** *v* to manage or direct (especially the affairs of a business, government, etc.): The company's finances have been badly administered.| The courts administered the law.

administer an estate	[ ]	administer talks	[ ]
administer a university	[ ]	administer an organisation	[ ]

> **amalgamate** *v*: (with) (especially of businesses, societies, groups, etc.) to join so as to form something larger; unite; combine: The new company was formed by the amalgamation of three smaller businesses.

amalgamate forces	[ ]	amalgamate organisations	[ ]
amalgamate classes	[ ]	amalgamate houses	[ ]

axe *v* **informal** to put an end suddenly and usually without warning to (a job, plans, etc.): 750 jobs were axed as a result of a government spending cuts.

axe a workforce	[ ]	axe services	[ ]
axe a department	[ ]	axe an argument	[ ]

compile *v* to make (a report, a book, etc.) from facts and information found in various places: It takes years to compile a dictionary.

compile an announcement	[ ]	compile a volume	[ ]
compile an index	[ ]	compile a list	[ ]

comply *v* **(with)** *formal* to act in accordance with a demand, rule, etc.: He reluctantly complied with their wishes. | The factory was closed for failing to comply with government safety regulations.

comply with instructions	[ ]	comply with a request	[ ]
comply with a necessity	[ ]	comply with anxiety	[ ]

contravene *v formal* to act in opposition to; break (a law, rule, custom, etc.): to contravene the parking regulations.

contravene a statement	[ ]	contravene instructions	[ ]
contravene an enemy	[ ]	contravene directives	[ ]

corroborate *v* corroborate: to support or strengthen (a statement, opinion, idea, etc.) by fresh information or proof: Someone who saw the accident corroborated the driver's statement.

corroborate a habit	[ ]	corroborate a belief	[ ]
corroborate a theory	[ ]	corroborate a story	[ ]

delegate *v* (to) to give (part of one's power, rights, etc.) to some one else for a certain time: Part of the art management is knowing when to delegate.| I have delegated my command to Captain Roberts.

delegate a duty	[ ]	delegate a present	[ ]
delegate a task	[ ]	delegate authority	[ ]

dissolve *v* to cause (an association, group, etc.) to end or break up: The military government dissolved the country's parliament and suspended all political activities.

dissolve a battle	[ ]	dissolve a committee	[ ]
dissolve a marriage	[ ]	dissolve an institution	[ ]

embody *v* to express (an idea, principle, etc.) in a real or physical form that can be seen or noticed: The country's constitution embodies the ideals of freedom and equality.| She embodies her principles in her behaviour.

embody a quality	[ ]	embody a feeling	[ ]
embody a theory	[ ]	embody a speech	[ ]

espouse *v formal* to (decide) to support (an aim, idea, etc.): the socialist philosophy espoused by this organisation.

espouse a cause	[ ]	espouse a policy	[ ]
espouse a friend	[ ]	espouse a plan	[ ]

fulfil *v* to carry out (an order, conditions, etc.); obey: The conditions of the contract must be fulfilled exactly.

fulfil a strategy	[ ]	fulfil a requirement	[ ]
fulfil a threat	[ ]	fulfil a prophecy	[ ]

inculcate *v formal* to fix (ideas, principles, etc.) in the mind of (someone): They inculcated the will to succeed in all their children.

inculcate an opinion	[ ]	inculcate a plan	[ ]
inculcate manners	[ ]	inculcate a habit	[ ]

misjudge *v* to judge (a person, action, time, distance, etc.) wrongly; form a wrong or unfairly bad opinion of: What a very kind thing to do, I've clearly been misjudging him all these years.

misjudge speed	[ ]	misjudge a motive	[ ]
misjudge a competition	[ ]	misjudge an opinion	[ ]

peg *v* to fix or hold (prices wages, etc.) at a certain level.

peg pensions	[ ]	peg wages	[ ]
peg situation	[ ]	peg values	[ ]

prejudice *v* to weaken or harm (someone's case, expectations, etc.): your bad spelling may prejudice your chance of getting the job.

prejudice a situation	[ ]	prejudice an interest	[ ]
prejudice a right	[ ]	prejudice a force	[ ]

quench *v* (*literary*) to put out (flames, light, etc.)

quench pain	[ ]	quench thirst	[ ]
quench a desire	[ ]	quench speed	[ ]

rehearse *v* to practice (a play, concert, etc.) in order to prepare for a public performance: The actors were rehearsing the play until 2 o'clock in the morning.

rehearse a book	[ ]	rehearse a speech	[ ]
rehearse dance	[ ]	rehearse an opera	[ ]

relinquish *v* **(to)** to give up (power, position, a claim, etc.): to relinquish power| He relinquished his claim to the land/his hold on my arm. | She relinquished all control over the family business to her daughter.

relinquish a question	[ ]	relinquish a habit	[ ]
relinquish a job	[ ]	relinquish a belief	[ ]

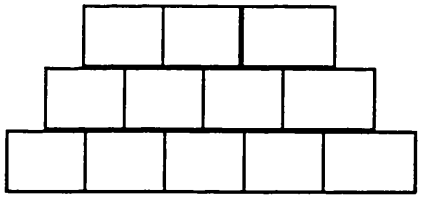
solicit *v formal* to ask for (money, help, a favour, etc.) from a (person): May I solicit your advice on a matter of some importance.

solicit an opinion	[ ]	solicit a vote	[ ]
solicit a deal	[ ]	solicit attention	[ ]

LexArab 7 **ALZ94C**

Write your name here

Thank you very much for your help



This booklet consists of 16 pages. Each page contains an explanation of the meaning of a chosen word followed by a box like this:

bequeath *v* give some money or other properties to somebody, a relative, or to a certain organisation officially after one's death. EG He bequeathed all his wealth to a charity which looks after mentally handicapped people.

BEQUEATH CAR <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

What you have to do is to read the definition and make sure that you understand the meaning of this word. Then write a short sentence in the box underneath the definition containing the two words on the top of the box.

Warning: All the words defined below have more than one meaning. Make sure you use the meaning in the definition.

bag *v* hunt wild creatures like animals, birds or fish by killing them or taking them alive for sport or food. EG They bagged a couple of foxes last week.

Warning: BAG cannot be used to refer to the killing of pets or the killing of human beings by some animals or birds.

BAG HUNTER <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

blind *v* confuse and make people unable to understand you because of the difficult, technical language you use. EG (1) Stop blinding her with science. (2) If you cannot convince her that your ideas are really good, then you could always try blinding her with few technical terms.

Warning: BLIND can only be used with words like SCIENCE and TECHNICAL LANGUAGE.

BLIND SALESMAN <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

fast *adv* solidly fixed in a certain place so as not to be moved or shaken. EG (1) Hold fast to the rope. (2) No matter how hard I pushed it, the door was stuck fast. Usually FAST is used with these verbs FIX, HOLD, STAND and STICK.

Warning: FAST is a very formal and literary word. It is often used when you are offering guidance or encouragement like: Hold fast to your principles...

FAST MUD <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

fish *v* try to gain or obtain something like compliments, praise, information, secrets, or gossip by indirect questioning or roundabout methods. EG (1) He reported the results of his exams to his friend fishing for compliments. (2) Journalists always fish for interesting information.
FISH is always used with FOR

Warning: FISH FOR is different from SEARCH FOR; it usually carries a negative meaning where one uses a slightly dishonest way.

FISH FRIEND <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

go *n* (UNCOUNT) the quality of being active and full of power, ability and enthusiasm to do things. EG (1) He's got a lot of go: He plays tennis every evening then he writes a new chapter of his novel. (2) Professor Brian has plenty of go in him.

Warning: GO is very colloquial here; it is used only with HUMANS.

GO CHILDREN <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

hand *n* (COUNT) a manual worker or employee on a farm, in a factory, in a ship, in dockyard, or in a shop. EG (1) The farmer employed over two hundred hands this year. (2) The engineering factory has taken on thirty new hands.

HAND BROTHER <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

hole *n* (COUNT) a serious weakness IN a law, theory, argument, story, reasoning or evidence. EG (1) His new theory about gravity is full of holes. (2) He tried to persuade me to believe him, but his story was full of holes.

Warning: HOLE, in this meaning, is somewhat colloquial and not suitable in formal, academic context.

HOLE POLICE <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

man *v* provide or supply with enough people to operate, service or defend something like a ship, a fort, an office or a phone. EG (1) The soldiers refused to man the guns. (2) The office will be manned over the spring holiday. Also: man a fort and man an office.

Warning: You can say: someone MANS A MACHINE to mean he is in charge of it or available to operate it; also, you can say MAN A TELEPHONE or A CHECKOUT but not MAN A CAR or A BICYCLE.

MAN WEEKEND <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

net v gain a certain amount of money after subtracting the capital and other expenses. EG (1) In their last deal, Harolds' netted 8500 pounds. (2) This year, we netted 50% more than what we earned last year.

Warning: NET is only used with money.

NET PROFIT <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

rear *v* bring up, care for, educate and feed children or animals until they are fully grown and can look after themselves. EG (1) My grandmother reared fifteen children. (2) Our neighbour reared his sons on bravery and self-reliance.

REAR FAMILY <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

rock *v* disturb, upset, frighten and shock PEOPLE greatly. EG (1) The news of the tornado rocked the entire population. (2) The town was rocked by the news of the child's death.

Warning: ROCK is usually used in journalism and news reports; it usually affects a group of people like an organisation, a village, a country or a society.

ROCK NEWSPAPER <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

skirt *v* ignore and not to deal with or refer to a certain question, subject, issue, topic, notion or an idea because it is difficult, disputable or embarrassing. EG (1) The boss managed to skirt round the subject of salaries. (2) The prime minister skirted the problem by insisting that it was not a financial question at all.
SKIRT is usually used with ROUND or AROUND.

Warning: Unlike AVOID, the verb SKIRT is used only with those special words mentioned above, therefore, you cannot say: SKIRT A STORY or SKIRT A MAN. However, we can say the SPEECH SKIRTED ROUND a certain issue...

SKIRT DECIDE <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

spring *v* disclose, bring or make known a certain theory, proposal, piece of news or announcement which may well be unwelcome or unpleasant upon somebody suddenly or unexpectedly. EG (1) My brother sprang a surprise on me; he said that I should pay him the 3000 pounds he lent me two months ago. (2) Andrew thought it was best to spring his decision on the family at dinner: he would be leaving that night.

Warning: SPRING is used only in this very fixed construction: Spring a ——— On ———.

SPRING MARRY <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

turn *n* (COUNT) an unexpected attack of discomfort, dizziness, faintness or illness. EG (1) The bad news about her daughter gave her quite a turn. (2) After dinner, the duchess had a bad turn.

Warning: TURN, here, is slightly non-standard; it is usually restricted to the fixed phrase: Something gives somebody a turn.

TURN DOCTOR <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

wind *v* turn or move here and there in a curving, twisting or spiral manner. EG (1) The river winds its way across the plain. (2) The road winds a lot through the hills before it reaches the castle. Usually WIND is used with adverbs like: ENDLESSLY, UNPREDICTABLY and RANDOMLY. Also WIND goes with BETWEEN, UP, ACROSS and THROUGH.

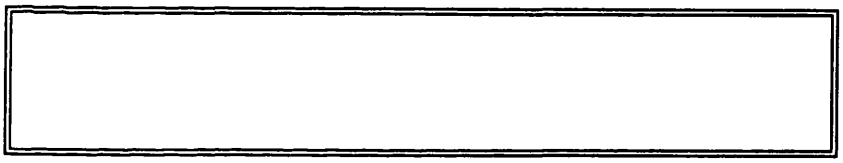
Warning: WIND is used with words such as ROAD, PATH, RIVER, STREAM, LINE OF PEOPLE, e.g. QUEUE. Human beings cannot wind but they might follow a winding road.

WIND MOUNTAIN <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

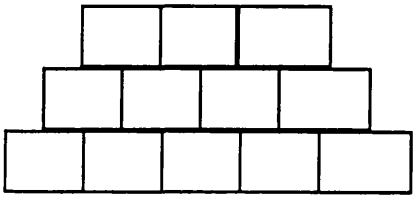
Appendix 9.2: materials used in chapter 7
COBUILD entries

LexArab 7 **ALZ94C**

Write your name here



Thank you very much for your help



This booklet consists of 16 pages. Each page contains an explanation of the meaning of a chosen word followed by a box like this:

If you **bequeath** your money or property to someone, you write an instruction in your will saying that they should receive it when you die. EG The forty million dollars he bequeathed Phoebe enabled his son to continue his studies.

V+O+O, OR
V+O+A (to)
=hand down

BEQUEATH CAR <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

What you have to do is to read the definition and make sure that you understand the meaning of this word. Then write a short sentence in the box underneath the definition. Your sentence should contain the two words on the top of the box.

Warning: All the words defined below have more than one meaning. Make sure you use the meaning that is in the definition.

If you **bag** an animal or bird, you shoot or catch it while hunting

V + O

BAG HUNTER <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **blind** someone with science, facts, etc, you make them confused, especially by tricking them with clever words that they do not understand.

V + O:IF+PREP
then with
⬆ confuse
= dazzle

BLIND SALESMAN <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

Something that is fixed or held **fast** is firmly fixed, held or fastened. EG I struggled to free myself but my leg was stuck fast.

ADV AFTER V
= tightly

FAST MUD <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **fish** for information or praise, you try and get it from another person in an indirect way. EG I think he was just fishing for compliments.

V+ A (for)
⇑ seek

FISH FRIEND <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

Go is the quality of been active and energetic. EG ..men like Northcliff, men of go.	N UNCOUNT

GO CHILDREN <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

A **hand** is someone, usually a man, who does hard physical work, for example in a factory or on in a farm as part of a group of people who do similar work. EG ... farm hands... All hands on deck!	N COUNT ↑ worker =labourer

HAND BROTHER <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

A **hole** in a law, theory, argument, etc is a fault or weakness that it has. EG The new tax law has several holes in it.	N COUNT+SUPP = flaw

HOLE POLICE <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **man** something such as a machine, you are in charge of it or available to operate it. EG They manned the phones all through the night... The rebels refused to man the barricades during the uprising.	V + O

MAN WEEKEND <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **net** a particular amount of money, you gain it as a profit when all expenses have been paid. EG The plastics began netting £ 1 billion a year for the company.

V+O, V+O,
OR
V+O+A(for)
= bring in

NET PROFIT <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **rear** children, you bring them up until they are old enough to look after themselves. EG Geraldo has adopted and reared four children. ... a child reared on self-indulgence.

V + O
⇑ raise

REAR FAMILY <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If something **rocks** a country or society, it causes feelings of shock, horror, or fear in that country or society. EG Wars, plagues, earthquakes and famine rocked many an earlier social order. France was rocked by an outbreak violent crime.

V + O
= shake

ROCK NEWSPAPER <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **skirt** a subject or question, you avoid dealing with it, usually because it is difficult or controversial. EG He was skirting the issue. 'Get to the point!' I said.

V+O, OR V+A
round/around
⇑ bypass

SKIRT DECIDE <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If you **spring** some news or a surprise on someone, you tell them some unexpected news or ask them to do something that surprises them. EG It was then that I sprang my surprise... She couldn't understand why this shouldn't be sprung on her at such short notice.

V + O:
IF + PREP
THEN on

SPRING MARRY <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

A turn is a slight attack of illness; an informal use. EG Mrs Reilly is having one of her turns.

N COUNT
= fit

TURN DOCTOR <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

If a road, river, line of people, etc **winds** in a particular direction, it goes in that direction with a lot of bends or twists in it. EG The river winds through the town a dark hall with big staircase winding up from it ... The procession wound its way through the sunlit streets.

V+A OR V+A
DETPOSS+way
+ A
= zigzag.
snake

WIND MOUNTAIN <<use **BOTH** words in a sentence		

Appendix 10
meaning identification and sentence composition

No. of individuals' correct answers regarding meaning identification (MI) and sentence composition (SC) tasks (max.20)

	COB		LDO	
Ss	MI	SC	MI	SC
S1.	18	10	14	05
S2.	17	08	18	14
S3.	20	15	13	07
S4.	16	05	13	15
S5.	18	14	11	07
S6.	20	18	19	12
S7.	15	11	16	07
S8.	12	07	18	17
S9.	17	08	18	09
S10.	19	07	14	10
S11.	17	07	08	03
S12.	13	06	16	15
S13.	19	13	14	16
S14.	15	12	18	10
S15.	15	08	15	11
S16.	20	12	14	11
S17.	18	08	08	04
S18.	20	17	16	11
S19.			17	13
S20.			17	11
S21.			14	09
S22.			11	03

Appendix 11
least frequent element look-ups

No. of individuals' preferences for the least frequent elements in two-word expressions relating to groups (max.39)

Ss	ARA	ENG
S1.	25	21
S2.	24	15
S3.	21	23
S4.	24	22
S5.	22	22
S6.	26	24
S7.	21	25
S8.	25	21
S9.	13	21
S10.	22	27
S11.	28	19
S12.	22	25
S13.	19	30
S14.	22	30
S15.	25	26
S16.	36	21
S17.	25	22
S18.	18	22
S19.	33	18

S20.	23	24
S21.	30	21
S22.	19	22
S23.	32	21
S24.	29	26
S25.	32	21
S26.	35	22
S27.	21	21
S28.	24	24
S29.	27	25
S30.	32	13
S31.	26	14
S32.	20	12
S33.	18	20
S34.	16	28
S35.	32	20
S36.	19	
S37.	23	
S38.	19	
S39.	20	
S40.	19	
S41.	20	
S42.	25	

S43.	21
S44.	20
S45.	26
S46.	29

Appendix 12
judgement of verb-noun collocations

Individuals' correct scores on both the pretest and main test relating to dictionaries (max.20)

	LDO		COB	
Ss	pretest	main test	pretest	main test
S1.	14	14	07	10
S2.	11	16	12	17
S3.	07	11	06	08
S4.	10	11	10	11
S5.	11	11	06	09
S6.	13	16	07	10
S7.	10	08	09	10
S8.	13	14	10	09
S9.	12	13	10	12
S10.	12	14	10	12
S11.	11	13	12	14
S12.	10	12	11	09
S13.	10	17	15	09
S14.	07	11	11	18
S15.	06	14	10	09
S16.	11	11	10	14
S17.	12	17	12	08
S18.	11	15	11	12
S19.	10	11	11	14
S20.	12	14	10	15
S21.	11	14	13	09
S22.	15	07	11	16
S23.	12	13	12	14
S24.	11	13	12	11
S25.	09	11	11	09
S26.	10	12	14	12
S27.	17	16	13	14
S28.	10	11	11	14
S29.	11	12	10	13
S30.	10	11	11	13
S31.	06	14	11	12
S32.	12	10	12	16

Appendix 13
guessing the defined verbs' collocates

No. of individuals' correct answers on test A and test B relating to groups (max.60).

	ARA		ENG	
Ss	test A	test B	test A	test B
S1.	15	16	21	40
S2.	22	36	35	44
S3.	10	28	23	48
S4.	18	12	31	40
S5.	15	02	35	44
S6.	05	08	29	32
S7.	18	13	31	44
S8.	24	08	27	44
S9.	11	20	30	45
S10.	16	21	25	40
S11.	16	00	24	48
S12.	18	32	24	45
S13.	20	28	28	48
S14.	27	08	28	48
S15.	22	08	26	36
S16.	32	09	24	52
S17.	24	16	32	40
S18.	20	05	26	40
S19.	16	16	32	52
S20.	22	09	40	48
S21.	19	00	28	44
S22.	17	24	32	48
S23.	26	28		
S24.	20	20		
S25.	20	08		

Appendix 14
sentence composition with TME

No. of individuals' correct sentences relating to types of entry (max.15)

Ss	TME users	COBUILD users
S1.	14	07
S2.	15	05
13.	11	09
S4.	13	05
S5.	15	10
S6.	15	08
S7.	14	10
S8.	14	08
S9.	13	09
S10.	12	14
S11.	13	08
S12.	13	01
S13.	12	11
S14.	12	13
S15.	14	07
S16.	11	08
S17.	13	09
S18.	13	06
S19.	13	07
S20.	13	11
S21.	13	10
S22.	14	
S23.	09	
S24.	13	
S25.	15	